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ABSTRACT

The Department for International Development (DFID) is the British government department responsible for promoting development and the reduction of poverty in sites in developing and transition countries around the world. This paper focuses on the education dimension of poverty reduction, and specifically the attainment of the International Development Targets for education, which are to: achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE) by 2015; and demonstrate progress toward gender equality and the empowerment of women by eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005. Section 1 underlines the importance of education as a basic human right, a right which promotes other rights and responsibility that contribute to economic and social development. Section 2 defines the scale and geography of the challenge, noting that it is in sub-Saharan Africa that the size and complexity of the challenge is greatest. Section 3 posits the argument that the experiences of the past decade--positive and negative--point to a set of important lessons which should inform the work of governments and the wider international community, lessons that include the central role of government and the need for policies inclusive of all children. Section 4 identifies priorities and strategies for action, arguing that for targets to be achieved there must be sustained commitment by national governments to sound, long-term policies that recognize the strategic contribution of primary education to development. Section 5 outlines a broad, threefold strategy for DFID: (1) contributing to the development and coordination of international commitment, policies, and programs designed to achieve UPE and Education for All; (2) strong, well-targeted country programs that will provide strategic assistance to governments and societies committed to achieving UPE and gender equality; and (3) knowledge and research strategies and outcomes that will contribute to the ability of the international community to learn lessons, share experience, and monitor progress. Section 6 underscores the importance of developing capacity to monitor progress toward the targets, and for DFID to assess the effectiveness and efficiency of its contribution to achieving UPE and gender equality. (HTH)

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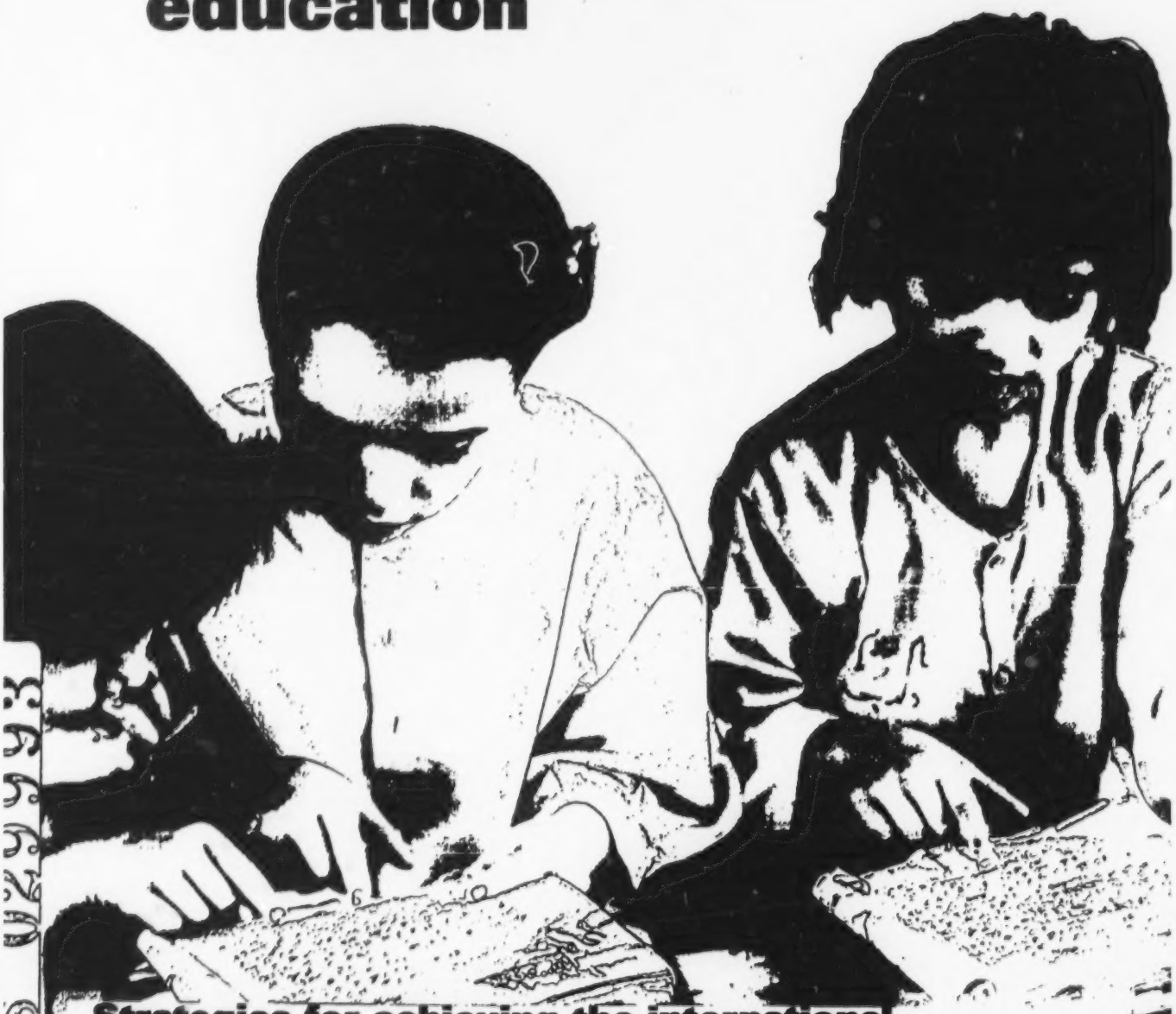
# The challenge of universal primary education



## Strategies for achieving the international development targets

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## The international development targets

### Economic well-being

- a reduction by one-half in the proportion of people living in extreme poverty by 2015.

### Social and human development

- universal primary education in all countries by 2015;
- demonstrated progress towards gender equality and the empowerment of women by eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005;
- a reduction by two-thirds in the mortality rates for infants and children under age 5 by 2015;
- a reduction by three-fourths in maternal mortality by 2015;
- access through the primary health-care system to reproductive health services for all individuals of appropriate ages as soon as possible and no later than the year 2015.

### Environmental sustainability and regeneration

- the implementation of national strategies for sustainable development in all countries by 2005, so as to ensure that current trends in the loss of environmental resources are effectively reversed at both global and national levels by 2015.

While not amenable to quantification, there is a range of qualitative elements of development that are essential to the attainment of the quantitative goals. These include democratic accountability, the protection of human rights and the rule of law.

Cover photograph: Dilshad Sheikh/DFID

# The challenge of universal primary education

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Strategies for achieving the international development targets

# Department for International Development

The Department for International Development (DFID) is the British government department responsible for promoting development and the reduction of poverty. The government elected in May 1997 increased its commitment to development by strengthening the department and increasing its budget.

The policy of the government was set out in its first White Paper on International Development, published in November 1997. The central focus of the policy is a commitment to the internationally agreed target to halve the proportion of people living in extreme poverty by 2015, together with the associated targets including basic health care provision and universal access to primary education by the same date. The government's second White Paper on International Development, published in December 2000, reaffirmed this commitment, while focusing specifically on how to manage the process of globalisation to benefit poor people.

DFID seeks to work in partnership with governments which are committed to the international targets, and seeks to work with business, civil society and the research community to encourage progress which will help reduce poverty. We also work with multilateral institutions including the World Bank, United Nations agencies and the European Commission. The bulk of our assistance is concentrated on the poorest countries in Asia and sub-Saharan Africa.

We are also contributing to poverty elimination and sustainable development in middle income countries, and helping the transition countries in Central and Eastern Europe to try to ensure that the widest number of people benefit from the process of change.

As well as its headquarters in London and East Kilbride, DFID has offices in New Delhi, Bangkok, Dhaka, Kathmandu, Nairobi, Dar-es-Salaam, Kampala, Harare, Abuja, Pretoria, Maputo, Lilongwe, Lusaka, Beijing, Suva, Bridgetown, and Montserrat. In other parts of the world, DFID works through staff based in British embassies and high commissions.

**Department for International Development**
**January 2001**

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# Foreword by the Secretary of State

This paper is one of a set. Together, they spell out actions which could transform the lives of hundreds of millions of poor people and make the planet a better and safer place for our children and grandchildren. They say what needs to be done to achieve key targets for international development.

These International Development Targets have been agreed by the entire United Nations membership, following a series of summit meetings held by the UN and its specialised agencies over the past ten years or so. The meetings discussed progress in poverty reduction and sustainable development and set targets for measuring that progress.

In the past, targets have often been set and then disregarded. This time, however, the international community is giving them greater weight. In 1996, all the main Western development partner countries, grouped together in the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) committed themselves to a partnership with developing countries and countries in transition from centrally planned economies. The success of this partnership would be measured against key targets from the UN summits. In the following year, the new UK Government made these targets the centrepiece of its 1997 White Paper on International Development. More recently the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) decided to co-ordinate their development efforts behind the targets. These targets are listed on the inside front cover.

Neither the United Kingdom nor any other individual development partner country can achieve the targets alone. The targets are challenging, some particularly so. But if, by working together, we can increase the effectiveness of the international community, our assessment is that these targets are achievable for developing and transition countries, as a group, by the target date, or soon after in some cases, even though they may not be achieved in each region or country individually. It is clear that each developing country must lead the effort if the targets are to be achieved. If this commitment is lacking, civil society institutions need to press their governments to take action, as without a local lead, progress cannot be achieved. The international community, in turn, must provide support for those governments committed to the reforms which are necessary to achieve the targets. Most countries should be able to register very considerable progress towards meeting the targets by the due dates.

This paper is about education. It identifies the challenges set by the two international targets of Universal Primary Education by 2015 and progress towards gender equality in primary and secondary schooling by 2005. The paper examines the key lessons which can be drawn from recent experience on what has worked well in countries which have made substantive progress towards Universal Primary Education. It concludes that the International Development Targets for education can be achieved where there exists enough political will in national governments to make the necessary policy and resource commitments, matched by strategic support from the international community.

Targets need to be used intelligently. They cannot capture the full richness and complexity of individual and collective transformation that makes for sustainable development. Individual countries should select and debate in normal democratic ways their own measures of achievement. But regular public assessment of how countries as a group and by region are performing against a simple standard is essential, in order to focus development assistance on achieving real outputs. Doing so will show what works and what does not, will provide accountability for the efforts being made in the name of development, and will give impetus to extending basic life opportunities that should be available to all.

Targets also need to be grounded in reality. For this, we should not underestimate the value of good statistics. The political debate in Britain was strongly influenced by 19th and early 20th century surveys documenting the reality of grinding poverty in our own society. A similar effort of political will is needed in many developing and transition countries if they are to give sufficient emphasis to the needs of their own poor people. Better quality and more accessible information on people's standards of living is one essential element in creating that will. Much work is needed to improve the collection of reliable and comparable data, and to strengthen local statistical capacity.

These papers do not attempt to provide detailed plans; they will follow, country by country and institution by institution, from discussions with developing countries and with the relevant institutions. Many detailed proposals for action in pursuit of the targets are published, or soon will be, as Country and Institutional Strategy Papers. Our bilateral programmes are being reshaped. We are also encouraging the multilateral development institutions in the same direction. One example of this is the policy of

the International Development Association – the concessional lending arm of the World Bank – which, following its Twelfth Replenishment, now focuses on poverty elimination in the context of the International Development Targets. Another example is the enhanced Heavily Indebted Poor Countries Debt Initiative, agreed at the IMF and World Bank in September 1999, which has started to deliver faster, deeper and broader debt relief to countries committed to eradicating poverty. The G8 Summit in Okinawa endorsed the targets and asked for annual reports on progress.

We must also take advantage of the increased wealth being generated by 'globalisation', to help achieve the International Development Targets. The UK Government has just published a second White Paper on International Development, focusing on managing the process of globalisation to the benefit of poor people.

This paper and the others in the collection assess the challenge and set out an overall approach and strategy for our involvement in achieving the development targets in a clear, focused and realistic way. Each reflects a process of consultation in the United Kingdom and overseas.

I hope that you will find them a valuable statement of what the UK Government will do and how the United Kingdom seeks to use its influence to make a reality of the targets, to which we and the rest of the United Nations membership are committed. We stand ready to be judged against our delivery of this strategy. And the whole development community – governments, international agencies, civil society organisations – should be judged collectively against delivery of the targets.

**CLARE SHORT**
Secretary of State for International Development

# Executive summary

1. This paper focuses on the education dimension of poverty reduction, and specifically the attainment of the International Development Targets for education, which are to:

   - achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE) by 2015;
   - demonstrate progress towards gender equality and the empowerment of women by eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005.

2. The *World Conference on Education for All*, held in Jomtien in 1990, identified six dimensions to ensuring that every person – child, youth and adult – should be able to meet their basic learning needs. These go beyond primary education to include early childhood care and development, adult literacy, and basic skills training. But Universal Primary Education remains at the core of attempts to achieve Education for All, and although primary school enrolments have increased since 1990 by an average of 10 million children each year, the goal still eludes many developing countries. The *World Education Forum* held in Dakar, Senegal, in April 2000, reaffirmed the vision of Jomtien but called for a new level of commitment, designed to achieve targets that have been stated regularly but rarely delivered. This paper is a contribution to meeting the commitments endorsed by more than 180 countries in the *Dakar Framework for Action*.

3. An estimated 113 million children still are not enrolled in school, two thirds of whom are girls. Where children do go to school, too often ineffective schools limit learning. Without increased and improved levels of education, poverty will not be eliminated and sustainable development will not take place.

4. Universal Primary Education and greater gender equality are achievable but a *business as usual* approach will not work. A more strategic view is required which recognises the central importance of education in the elimination of poverty, and gives strong political weight and appropriate policy and resource priority to the realisation of the International Development Targets.

5. The education of girls is one of the most important determinants of development. If girls continue to be overlooked, the International Development Targets will not be met. Gender equality in schooling also helps to promote the empowerment of women in society more generally; and, since women make up as many as 70% of the world's poor, this is not only good in itself, it is vital to development.

6. The paper defines the challenges set by the education targets, assesses the lessons of national and international efforts to date, and identifies a set of major national and international priorities for action. It sets out the implications of this analysis for the work of DFID, and underscores the importance of effective monitoring of progress towards the targets.

7. **Section 1** underlines the importance of education as a basic human right; a right which promotes other rights and responsibilities which contribute to economic and social development. Education empowers people to participate in the transformation of their lives and the societies in which they live. Without improved levels of education, sustained and broad-based economic growth will not take place.

8. The education targets are not the sum total of education goals and aspirations. Quality primary education for all *is* the priority target internationally, but it is an objective which should be set firmly within a process designed to expand and develop opportunities across the education sector as a whole.

9. **Section 2** defines the scale and geography of the challenge. It is in sub-Saharan Africa that the size and complexity of the challenge is greatest. Only 61% of school age children are enrolled in school. Conflict and the AIDS pandemic threaten those gains that have been made. Poverty, gender discrimination and social exclusion are all barriers to Education for All. But these barriers can be broken down through greater integration of education and other related policies.

10. **Section 3** argues that the experiences of the past decade – positive and negative – point to a set of important lessons which should inform the work of governments and the wider international community.

Key amongst these are: the central role of government; the need for policies which are inclusive of all children; the importance of quality; and the need for funding agencies to work more collaboratively with governments and with each other.

11. **Section 4** identifies priorities and strategies for action. This section argues that for the targets to be achieved there must be sustained commitment by national governments to sound, long-term policies which recognise the strategic contribution of primary education to development. Governments will need to tackle the core issues of access, affordability, quality, inclusion and the effective application of modern technology. Achieving gender equality will require major culture shifts. The problems of insufficient, inefficient and inequitable financing for education, and weak institutional capacity to design and implement reform and development, must be addressed. Participation by civil society will be essential.

12. The international community also has clear obligations. The priority is to give strong commitment and provide well co-ordinated support for Universal Primary Education and gender equality within comprehensive frameworks of assistance at the national level.

13. DFID is one of many agencies committed to the International Development Targets. **Section 5** outlines a broad, threefold strategy for DFID:

    - Contributing to the development and co-ordination of international commitment, policies and programmes designed to achieve Universal Primary Education and Education for All.

    - Strong, well-targeted country programmes – with priority given to sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia – which will provide strategic assistance to governments and civil societies committed to achieving Universal Primary Education and gender equality within sound education sector, poverty and development frameworks.

    - Knowledge and research strategies and outcomes that will contribute to the ability of the international community, including national governments, to learn lessons, share experience and monitor progress.

14. **Section 6** underscores the importance of developing capacity to monitor progress towards the targets, nationally and internationally, and for DFID to assess carefully the effectiveness and efficiency of our contribution to achieving Universal Primary Education and gender equality.

# 1. Target statement

## Introduction

**1.1** The elimination of poverty and progress towards sustainable development will only take place with increased and improved levels of education. The commitment of the international community to this end has been reaffirmed on many occasions[1] but for millions of the world's poorest people, Education for All remains an unfulfilled commitment.

**1.2** This paper is a contribution to dialogue and action on how to achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE) and the elimination of gender disparities in schooling – two internationally agreed development targets[2] that were reaffirmed recently at the *World Education Forum* in Senegal[3].

## What are the targets?

**1.3** The International Development Targets encompass the expansion of educational opportunity for all children. They are:

- ***Universal Primary Education[4] in all countries by the year 2015***
- ***Progress towards gender equality and the empowerment of women demonstrated by eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005[5]***

**1.4** One sixth of the world's population is unable to read and write. Over 20% of school age children, two thirds of them girls, do not benefit from primary education – within formal schools or elsewhere. Children who do attend school often fail to achieve literacy, let alone develop broader skills and values. This is a huge impediment to sustainable development and is a denial of fundamental human rights.

**1.5** At the *World Education Forum*, the international community reaffirmed its collective commitment to the achievement of the international targets. It elaborated the targets to emphasise the importance of inclusion, equity and quality.

- *Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to – and complete – free and compulsory primary education of good quality.*
- *Eliminating gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education by 2015, with a focus on ensuring girls' full and equal access to, and achievement in, basic education of good quality.*
- *Improving all aspects of the quality of education and ensuring excellence for all, so that recognised and measurable learning outcomes are achieved, especially in literacy, numeracy and essential life skills.*

**1.6** The two international education targets do not represent the totality of individual and national aspirations, needs and goals[6]. Education for All includes adults as well as young people. Literacy and the acquisition of new skills are important for the elimination of poverty and for enabling poor people to reap the potential benefits of globalisation. Nevertheless, UPE is the first priority for widening the life chances of those who live in poverty, an absolute precondition for sustainable development and, an essential step on the ladder of lifelong learning.

## Why are the targets important?

**1.7** Education is at the heart of development. The countries which have made the greatest progress in reducing poverty in recent decades are those which have combined effective and equitable investment in education with sound economic policies. Education enables people to use and extend their capabilities, develop skills, improve their livelihoods and increase their earning potential. And it also empowers them to participate in decision-making and in the transformation of their lives and societies.

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[1] For example, the Universal Declaration on Human Rights (1948); the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989); the World Conference on Education for All (1990); the Beijing Declaration (1995); and the Copenhagen Declaration (1996) which set the two international education targets.

[2] OECD (1996), *Development Assistance Strategy*. Paris: OECD.

[3] World Education Forum (2000), *The Dakar Framework for Action. Education for All: Meeting Our Collective Commitments.*

[4] *Universal* meaning inclusiveness and equality of opportunity; *Primary* meaning a basic level of education (not necessarily through formal schooling), and an essential requirement for further learning; and *Education* meaning an effective process of learning which develops the skills, knowledge and attitudes required to realise the full potential of every child.

[5] *Gender equality in education* – equal opportunities for girls and boys to learn, achieve and contribute.

[6] The Dakar Framework for Action set three other Education for All goals:

- Expanding and improving comprehensive early childhood care and education, especially for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged children.
- Ensuring that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes.
- Achieving a 50% improvement in levels of adult literacy by 2015, especially for women, and equitable access to basic and continuing education for all adults.

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Education is central to the achievement of greater equality in society, including between men and women.

**1.8** Investment in education for girls has been shown consistently to be one of the most important determinants of development, with positive implications for all other measures of progress. World Bank research[7] has demonstrated that education increases the likelihood of women choosing to have smaller, healthier families and deciding to send their own children to school.

**1.9** Education contributes significantly to the improvement of health by enhancing peoples' capacity to care for their own health and that of their families, and to make more effective use of health services. Good primary education can help to foster agricultural innovation and improve the capacity of people to make use of their environment in a sustainable way.

**1.10** The processes by which education can effect such changes are complex. It must involve a meaningful learning process which develops not only literacy and numeracy, but also life skills and the capacity to think and to reflect. Education should encourage initiative, flexibility and adaptability, the personal qualities which are conducive to greater empowerment, behavioural change and access to a wider range of livelihood opportunities.

**1.11** The human costs of failing to enable all people to realise the right to basic education on an equitable basis are incalculable. All other efforts to improve health and nutrition, address the causes and impact of HIV/AIDS, reduce infant, child and maternal mortality, enhance opportunities for more productive livelihoods and promote a civil society committed to democracy, good government and the achievement of other fundamental rights, are undermined. Inequitable access or discriminatory practice contribute to social polarisation.

**1.12** The importance of education to individual, community and national development is reflected in its recognition as a human right. The right to a primary education is enshrined in the *Universal Declaration of Human Rights* (1948: Article 26) which states that at least in the elementary and fundamental stages education should be free. The *UN Convention on the Rights of the Child* (1989: Article 28) makes it clear that it is national governments or States Parties which are responsible, on the basis of equal opportunity, for making primary education compulsory and free for all. UPE contributes to the progressive realisation of other rights while progress towards gender equality in schooling sharpens the wider focus on women's rights as human rights.

## Are the targets achievable?

**1.13** Declarations on the goal of UPE have been made as long ago as the 1960s, with an initial target date of 1980[8]. A later target of UPE by the year 2000 was set within the *World Declaration on Education for All* in Jomtien in 1990. Globally, 80 million more children were in school at the end of the decade than in 1990, but approximately 113 million children are still denied the opportunity of a primary education.[9] (Annex 1). The decline in enrolments in sub-Saharan Africa during the 1980s has been arrested but economic decline, conflicts across the region and the impact of HIV/AIDS on children and education systems are major threats to the achievement of UPE. There has been some progress towards greater gender equality at school although in sub-Saharan Africa recent evidence suggests that the gender gap has widened slightly since 1990[10], where household labour, early marriage, unwanted pregnancies and sexually transmitted diseases continue to threaten schooling.

**1.14** Nonetheless, UPE is achievable if the lessons of the past are learned, and provided governments, with civil society and the support of the wider international community, take appropriate and urgent action. A *business as usual* approach will fail to meet the target. A more strategic approach is required; one which recognises the centrality of education within wider development policies and gives it strong political backing together with appropriate resource priority.

**1.15** The question of what it would cost to achieve UPE, and whether governments can afford it, is difficult. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF)[11] and some international non-governmental organisations (NGOs) have estimated that to meet the UPE target, national governments and funding agencies need to find an additional US$7–8 billion annually. This is an approach which assumes that the problem is a lack of resources per se rather than national political commitment. In reality,

[7] For example: Hill, M.A. & King, E.M. (1993,1995).

[8] UNESCO World Regional Conferences on Education Karachi (1960), Addis Ababa (1961), Santiago (1962) and Tripoli (1966).

[9] International Consultative Forum on Education for All (2000) *Statistical Document: Education for All 2000 Assement*. Paris: UNESCO.

[10] Hyde, K. (1999), *Trends in Girls' Education in sub-Saharan Africa 1990-2000: What Have We Learned?*, A paper presented for UNICEF at the Sub-Saharan Africa Conference on Education for All 2000; Johannesburg, South Africa.

[11] UNICEF (1998), *State of the World's Children*. New York: UNICEF.

sustained progress is only possible with strong political commitment at the country level and a clear recognition of the very different costs of providing education in different countries. The important message is that all governments *can* afford UPE if they choose to give it priority, and if they make effective use of their own resources, and if funding agencies deliver on their commitment, made in Dakar, that no country seriously committed to Education for All will be thwarted for lack of resources[12].

**1.16** Progress can be made towards greater gender equality, although achieving the 2005 target will be problematic in many countries. Recent global figures from the World Bank[13] estimate that girls will make up 47% of combined primary and secondary gross enrolment by 2005. This will demonstrate significant progress. Placing a gender target ahead of UPE is strategically advantageous. It focuses attention and effort on tackling gender disparities, the benefits of which will serve to reinforce efforts to achieve UPE.

## How will progress be measured?

**Monitoring progress is an integral part of achieving the targets**

**1.17** There are three main indicators[14] for UPE and two for gender equality (Table 1). These have been agreed by the international community as **minimum benchmarks** for the monitoring of progress at the global level, and, by extension, for assessing the performance of governments and agencies. This has been difficult in the past because of lack of timely, reliable figures. The development of national and international capacity to collect and analyse data is critical. Each country needs to be able to assess its own progress and identify trends in order to be able to concentrate its efforts on the most effective strategies. Good data is also essential to improve accountability, particularly of governments to their citizens, and of agencies to the taxpayers who fund them.

**1.18** The international indicators need to be supplemented at the level of country planning, particularly to inform judgements on quality and participation. Country and context specific indicators and benchmarks are needed, especially in relation to measurable learning outcomes.

Table 1 UPE and gender equality indicators

**UPE by 2015**

- ***Net enrolment rates of 99% by 2015***
  The percentage of children of primary school age enrolled in primary education. This is a measure of *access*.
- ***Completion rates of 99% by 2015***
  The progression of children into the fifth grade of schooling i.e. the proportion of children enrolled in Grade 1 who complete four years of primary education. Its achievement will require universal enrolment in Grade 1 in the year 2011. This is a measure of *retention*. (Many countries have a longer primary or basic cycle than five years.)
- ***Literacy rates of 15–24 year olds of 100% by 2015***
  This is being used as a proxy measure of *quality and learning achievement*. It is intended to capture a key *learning outcome* from recent primary and secondary education. However, as it is currently defined, it is inconsistent with the first two indicators, as it depends on the first decade of sustained achievement of UPE before school-leavers reach the 15–24 age group.

**Progress towards gender equality and the empowerment of women demonstrated by eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005**

- ***Ratio of girls to boys in primary and secondary education of 50:50 by 2005 (equal participation)***
  This is calculated as the combined primary and secondary gross enrolment ratio for girls as a percentage of the combined primary and secondary gross enrolment ratio for boys. Gross enrolment is the total number of children enrolled in school expressed as a percentage of the eligible official school age population. With over-age and under-age children and those repeating grades, a country's gross enrolment figures can be more than 100%. Gross, rather than net, enrolment rates are used to assist in collecting data widely, since net enrolment data are not yet as reliable. This is an indicator designed to reflect differences in *educational opportunities*.
- ***Ratio of literate females to males (15–24 year olds) of 100% by 2015***
  The indicator is expressed as the Adult Female Literacy Rate as a percentage of the Adult Male Literacy Rate for 15–24 year olds. It is designed to reflect *quality of education*.

[12] World Education Forum (2000), *The Dakar Framework for Action. Education for All: Meeting Our Collective Commitments.*
[13] World Bank (1999), *Poverty Trends and Voices of the Poor.* Washington: World Bank.
[14] OECD (1998), *Methodological Note.* Paris.

14

# 2. Defining the challenge

## Achieving the targets: the scale and geography of the challenge

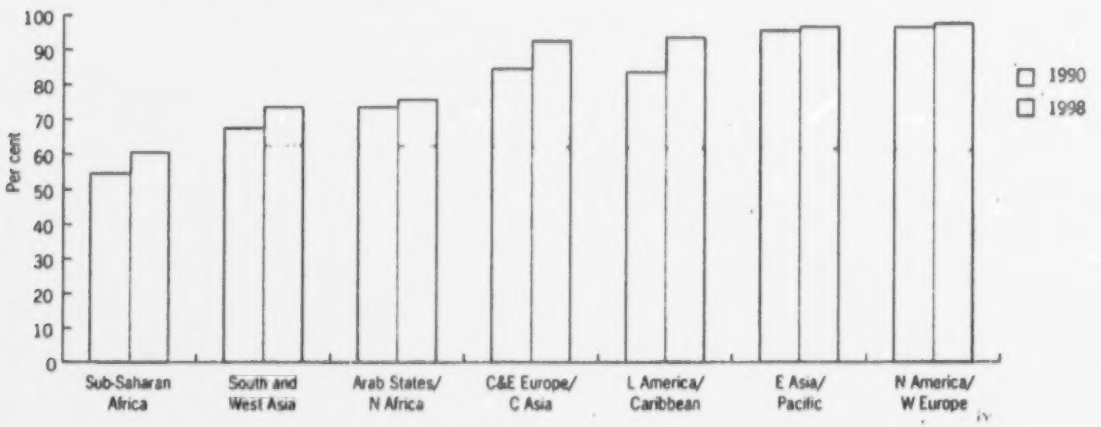
**2.1** Reliable data on school enrolment are not universally available[15], but the Education for All 2000 Assessment[16] estimates that 113 million children, 60% of them girls, are not enrolled in school. Over 40 countries report net primary enrolment rates of below 80% (Annex 1). Indicators of school attendance, retention and attainment are even more difficult to obtain, but it has been estimated that in sub-Saharan Africa, one third of children enrolled in primary school drop out before reaching the fifth grade[17].

**2.2** Despite the question mark over the validity of the data, it is clear that the magnitude of **the challenge of UPE is greatest in sub-Saharan Africa**, where net enrolment rates are lowest (61%) and 42 million of the 113 million out-of-school children live, **and in South and West Asia** with 47 million (Figure 1). Africa also faces a large projected increase in primary school age population (37%[18]) between 1998 and 2015, while a stable demand for education is expected in Asia (Figure 2). In both regions, there is a strong correlation between low enrolment and the incidence of poverty.

**2.3** In **sub-Saharan Africa**, population growth and an increase in the proportion of the population which is very young and economically dependent, set a daunting demographic challenge. Governments are faced with the problem of educating an ever-growing school population within tightly constrained budgets. To achieve UPE will require major and sustained increases in enrolment, year on year, akin in some countries to the rapid expansion that took place in the post-independence years of the 1960s. Maintaining progress will be a major task, unless fertility rates, in part a consequence of a failure to retain girls in school, fall substantially in the early years of the new millennium.

**2.4** In **South and West Asia**, while there are still nearly 50 million children out of school, primary enrolment is approaching 75%, and the demographic picture is less daunting. In India, for example, the school age population is projected to remain at about the current level, but the proportion of the population which is economically

Figure 1: **Primary net enrolment rates**



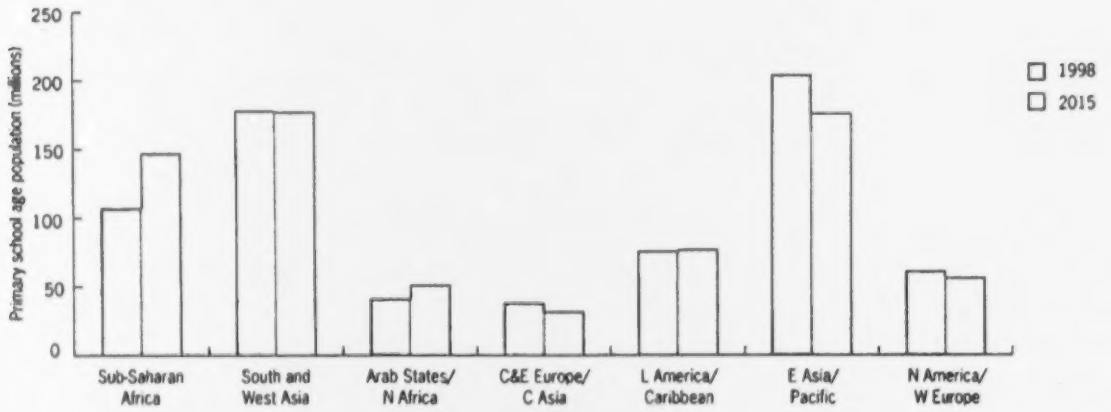

[15] There are confusing discrepancies between education statistics presented for countries which it has not been possible to avoid in this paper. The UNESCO Institute for Statistics has the international mandate for collecting and disseminating education data. Other international bodies present some data from their own sources and sometimes use different definitions, for example on primary school age boundaries, regional groupings and the estimation of missing data. In addition, the figures supplied by member states to UNESCO for the Education for All 2000 Assessment do not fully correspond with other national data. In particular, in some cases, the population estimates they give differ significantly from the population estimates produced by the United Nations Statistical Department which are otherwise routinely used.

[16] International Consultative Forum on Education for All (2000) *Statistical Document Education for All 2000 Assessment*. Paris: UNESCO

[17] UNICEF (1998), *State of the World's Children*. New York: UNICEF. Also see Annex 2.

[18] All projected changes in population are from the 'medium variant' in the UN's *World Population Prospects: the 1998 Revision*. They project recorded trends in fertility and mortality. The projections also take account of estimated and projected levels of HIV/AIDS prevalence in countries and make assumptions about the impact this will have on the size of population.

Figure 2: **Projected changes in primary school age population: 1998 to 2015**




active will increase, thus reducing the dependency ratio, and potentially making more resources available for education.

2.5 In the **Arab States and North Africa** the annual average demographic growth rate is 2.5% per annum. To attain an 80% enrolment rate by 2010 will require that primary education opportunities be made available for an additional 29 million students; this in the context of many countries being afflicted by conflict. In **South East and East Asia**, declining fertility rates in China should result in a major decline in the school age population by 2015, from 220 million to an estimated 183 million, although this projection may underplay the circumstances of minority groups. In **Latin America and the Caribbean**, it is the slow expansion of secondary education that represents a significant brake on the pace of development. In the island states of the **Pacific** primary enrolment is high, and the main issues are quality, equity and the expansion of secondary and higher education.

2.6 Assessment of the effectiveness of primary education and the **quality** of learning outcomes is difficult, although rates of drop-out from school, the proportion of pupils who have to repeat years, rates of primary completion and transition to secondary education, are useful proxy measures. A recent survey[19] of 58 countries showed that, in 23 of them, more than 20% of children enrolling in the first year of primary school failed to complete four years of education. Completion rates of the full primary cycle in most countries in sub-Saharan Africa are between 60-70%. And there are significant in-country disparities that reflect inequalities in access and provision of schooling. Africa also has some of the lowest transition rates to secondary education, many below 10%. Two thirds of all African countries have gross enrolment rates in the secondary sector of below 40%.

2.7 The **gender gap** is most pronounced in sub-Saharan Africa and South and West Asia (Figure 3). Of the 25 countries worldwide with the poorest girl:boy ratios in primary and secondary education, 17 are in sub-Saharan Africa. In 1998, 54% of school age girls in sub-Saharan Africa were enrolled in primary school, compared with 66% of boys. The comparable figures in South and West Asia were 67% and 79%. In most high-income countries and Eastern Europe there is near parity of enrolment, and a relatively small difference in Latin America and the Caribbean. At the secondary level there is growing parity between girls and boys who are enrolled (South and West Asia is lowest with 40%) but the actual percentage of school age girls who pursue secondary education remains low as Table 2 shows.

Table 2 Secondary school gross enrolment ratio: 1990–1996

| | Male | Female |
|---|---|---|
| Sub-Saharan Africa | 27 | 22 |
| The Middle East and North Africa | 64 | 54 |
| South Asia | 52 | 33 |
| East Asia and Pacific | 67 | 61 |
| Latin America and the Caribbean | 48 | 52 |
| CEE/CIS and Baltic States | 82 | 82 |
| Industrialised Countries | 105 | 107 |
| **World** | **61** | **54** |

Source: see Annex 1

[19] International Consultative Forum on Education For All (2000), *Education for All 2000 Assessment: Statistical Document*. Paris. UNESCO

2.8 Globally the gender gap has been closing. However faster progress in sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia and the Arab States is required if the 2005 target of parity is to be met, as the gradient on the regional curves on Figure 3 demonstrate.

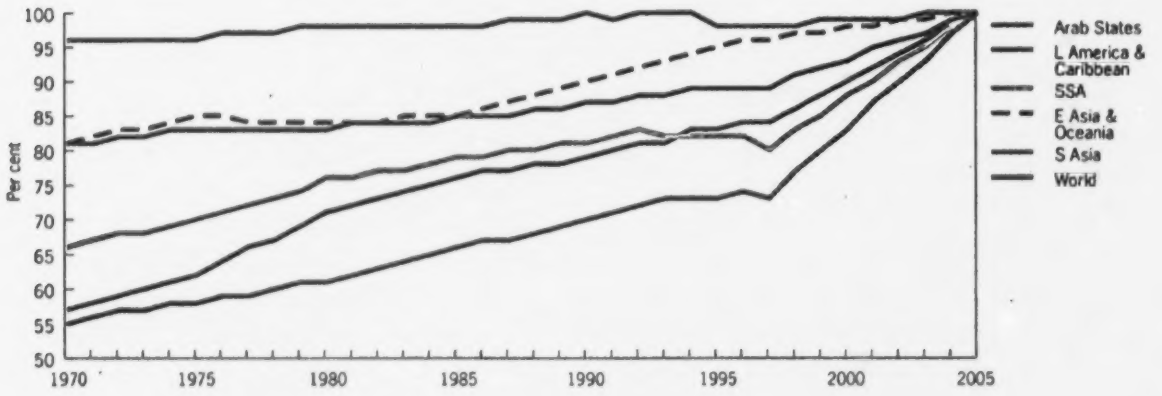
2.9 According to figures from the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO)[20], the total number of adult illiterates (men and women over the age of 15) fell from an estimated 962 million in 1990 to 887 million a decade later. Despite this, over one in five adults is illiterate in the year 2000 and the majority of these are women. Regionally, Eastern and Southern Asia combined have an estimated 71% of the world's illiterates. This **literacy gap** is an enormous barrier to sustainable development and is compounded by the very substantial gender gap in adult literacy (Figure 4). And illiteracy in rural areas is more than twice as high as urban areas.

## Barriers to UPE and gender equality

**Poverty heightens educational disadvantage**

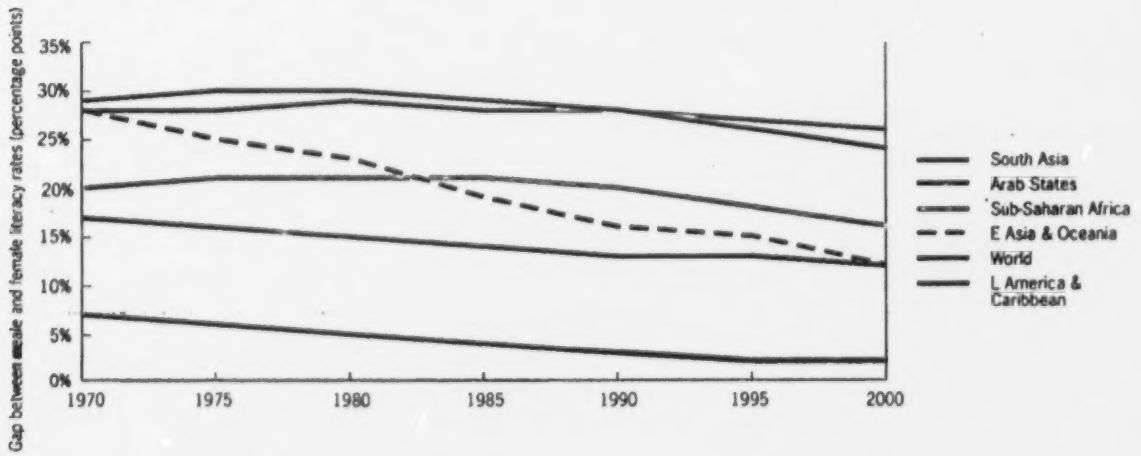
2.10 In the countries with the worst education indicators, most children from the poorest households have no primary education. Households with limited education are more likely to be poor. The gaps between the attainment of rich and poor children can be enormous.

Figure 3: **Girls as a percentage of boys in primary and secondary school(1)**




(1) Ratio of girl's gross enrolment for primary and secondary education, expressed as a ratio of the corresponding figure for boys

Figure 4: **Gender equality in adult literacy(1)**




[20] Quoted in International Literacy Institute (2000), *Education for All Thematic Study on Literacy and Adult Education*. A Thematic Study for the Education for All 2000 Assessment. Paris. UNESCO.

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In India, for example, 15 to 19 year olds from the richest 20% complete on average 10 school grades more than the equivalent cohort amongst the poorest 40% of students.[21] In Senegal, the enrolment of 6 to 14 year-olds from the poorest households is half that of children from the richest households. Of the children who do enrol, it is the poor who overwhelmingly drop out of school.

**2.11** For the poorest households, education may be a lesser day-to-day priority than basic survival. In cases of extreme poverty, children may contribute up to 40% of family income. Girls in particular contribute unpaid labour, mainly in domestic and agricultural activities. Thus direct and indirect costs can make education prohibitively expensive, while lack of access to a school or the poor quality of education on offer may discourage those parents who might have been willing to bear these costs. Where poor children do manage to enrol in school, poor nutrition and health can hinder their full participation and learning.

**2.12** Formal education systems are often inefficient in recognising and addressing the special circumstances of working children. The International Labour Organisation (ILO)[22] estimates that there are up to 250 million children working full or part-time in the developing world. UNICEF[23] estimates that 140 million of these are between the age of 6 and 11. Around 23% of these children enrol at school but 77% of those subsequently drop out.

**Gender inequality results in widespread educational disadvantage**

**2.13** In most societies, men and women differ in the activities they undertake, their access to, and control of, resources, and in participation in decision-making[24]. The position of women is often characterised by unequal power relations, limited mobility, restricted access to political power, confinement to domestic and subsistence spheres and inequality before the law.

**2.14** Girls contend with a complex mix of barriers to their right to education. Patriarchal systems of social organisation, a high value on women's reproductive role linked to customary early marriage (and pregnancy), and relatively low regard for the value of female life in some societies, are all formidable obstacles. Poor parents may not be willing to incur the direct and opportunity costs of educating their children, particularly girls. Where decisions to send children to school are weighed against labour contributions, girls are often the last to be sent to school and the first to be withdrawn. Parents sometimes anticipate that their investment in a daughter's education will be lost when she marries into another family. Girls who do go to school are more likely to be withdrawn for seasonal labour. Legal inequalities, the lack of female role models and limited job opportunities for women, allied to the lack of policies to eliminate gender discrimination within schools and more widely, compound the range of challenges confronting girls.

**2.15** Of the 880 million illiterate adults, some 600 million are women. This is a direct consequence of their not having been able to benefit from a primary education. The prevalence of female illiteracy is a good guide to gender inequality at school level and the disadvantage of girls.

**2.16** Thus, home background has a strong influence on opportunity at school. Illiterate parents are severely disadvantaged in assisting their children in developing literacy and numeracy skills. Those who have been excluded from educational opportunities themselves may have had less opportunity to assess its potential for their children. Research studies indicate that women participating in adult literacy programmes are more likely to send their children to school and keep them there, than illiterate mothers. They are also more likely to encourage their children to read and study at home[25].

**Social exclusion denies the possibility of UPE**

**Minorities and socially excluded groups**

**2.17** Exclusion from education takes many forms. Children may be disadvantaged due to their class or caste, or because they belong to an ethnic, linguistic, cultural or religious minority. Migrant families and nomadic communities face specific difficulties. In multi-language societies, the choice of language for initial instruction may privilege majority groups, either more numerous or more powerful, and disempower minorities.

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21 World Bank (1999), *Poverty Trends and Voices of the Poor*. Washington: World Bank.
22 International Labour Organisation, Bureau of Statistics (1996), Geneva.
23 UNICEF (1998), *State of the World's Children*. New York: UNICEF.
24 DAC (1998), *DAC Guidelines for Gender Equality and Women's Empowerment in Development Co-operation*. Paris. OECD
25 World Bank (1999), *Education Sector Strategy*. Washington: World Bank.

### Children with disabilities

**2.18** Children with disabilities have the same right to education as other children, and these are enshrined in the *Convention on the Rights of the Child*. While education data on children with physical or learning disabilities are poor, it is clear that very few, perhaps less than 2% globally, are in school. Boys with disabilities are more likely to attend school than girls. Literacy rates for people with disabilities, particularly women, are very low.

### HIV/AIDS is a serious threat to sustainable progress in education

**2.19** HIV/AIDS is having a devastating impact on poor people. In sub-Saharan Africa, the UN has declared that it "is a problem that dwarfs all other problems in the region"[26]. The prolonged sickness, and death, of those infected, in addition to the human tragedy, exacerbates and deepens existing poverty, through the direct costs of illness and the loss of labour. The effect on young adults of child-bearing age has increased the dependency ratios in poor communities and left many children orphaned. At least 95% of AIDS orphans (children who have lost at least one parent) live in Africa. In Zambia, for example, 30% of children are likely to lose at least one parent by 2010. In many countries infection rates continue to increase, and even where these are beginning to be checked (e.g. Uganda) the impact will continue to be severe.

**2.20** HIV/AIDS is a very significant challenge to achieving UPE, especially in sub-Saharan Africa. Where traditional community safety nets are disrupted, children may become heads of household, be cared for by relatives or neighbours or be kept at home to care for sick family members. Increasing numbers of children are taking to the streets. Where attendance at school is possible, it is likely to be disrupted, and there is clear evidence of declining attendance rates of girls in particular. These direct impacts, the more pervasive deepening of poverty and the increased sense of irrelevance of much traditional formal schooling in the context of HIV/AIDS, combine to work against progress in education. The impact of HIV/AIDS on performance of education systems is dramatic. High sickness and attrition levels among the teaching force threaten to undermine efforts to improve the quality of schooling.

### Conflict threatens educational development

**2.21** Conflict has severely disrupted education, particularly in sub-Saharan Africa, but also in Afghanistan, Colombia, the former Yugoslavia and parts of the former Soviet Union. Schools are often targeted and teachers put at risk in conflict situations. The supply of educational materials may be affected along with the disruption of education management, and the school environment may become unconducive to learning. Widespread and severe conflict may result in the collapse of formal education systems; where conflict is confined to a specific part of a country, it will likely result in increased inequity in national development.

**2.22** Education may actually contribute to conflict through language policies which discriminate against minorities or through a curriculum which prejudices their standing in society. Unequal national development, including education provision, may also exacerbate conflict in less well served districts.

**2.23** The effects of war on children, including massive violations of their rights, are well documented. Children are vulnerable to death, rape, mutilation, unlawful recruitment, displacement and separation from family, disabling injury and malnutrition. Adolescents are at extreme risk; girls are especially vulnerable, as are children with learning disabilities. They may be put at risk of HIV infection. The impacts of conflict can be long lasting and need to be addressed as part of any education programme with war-affected children.

**2.24** Globally the number of children who are displaced is around 30 million. In Africa alone, there are over 23 million refugees, returnees and displaced persons. Effective responses which include education require accurate and timely information on war-affected children which is disaggregated by sex and age. There is a lack of a systemic approach to data collection which affects subsequent resource planning and mobilisation.

### Addressing the challenge

**2.25** The magnitude of the challenges set out here underlines the importance of learning from the experience of governments and funding agencies; both what has worked, and what has not. A number of broad lessons are discussed in the next chapter. Some of these may not, in themselves, appear dramatically new, but it is in their combination that they become important.

[26] Gachuhi, D. (1999), *The Impact of HIV/AIDS on Education Systems in the Eastern and Southern Africa Region and the Response of Education Systems to HIV/AIDS*. New York: UNICEF.

# 3. Experience to date

## What have we learned?

### Commitment counts

**3.1** There is no escaping the fact that the achievement of UPE and gender equality, and indeed poverty reduction more broadly, depends in large measure on the will and commitment of a country's political leadership. Strong and consistent commitment, manifested in a willingness to allocate sufficient resources to education, and to use these resources effectively and efficiently, has been evident in all of the countries which have achieved and sustained UPE.

**3.2** There are a number of key issues here. First, the nature of primary education, with the high potential returns to society, argues for a central role for government. This does not mean that the private sector and civil society have no part to play, but experience shows that only government can ensure universal, equitable and sustainable provision. Second, primary education must as far as possible be free. Experience from those countries, including Malawi and Uganda, which have moved to abolish direct charging, is that user fees had been a serious deterrent to participation. Moreover, analysis of budgetary allocations in many countries shows that fees at the basic level have been frequently imposed as an alternative to tackling the skewed distribution of public funding within the education sector, which too often favours better-off, but politically vocal, groups. Third, UPE is not just about numbers. Simply providing a bad quality education to more children risks wasting scarce resources. Unless governments are committed to improving quality, education outcomes will not be delivered, and the broader developmental impacts in terms of growth, better health and so on, will be jeopardised.

### Mainstream gender equality

**3.3** Achieving gender equality in school and society more broadly involves more than adding gender components to funding agency programmes, launching special initiatives, or establishing gender units in government ministries. It requires no less than a fundamental change in mindset in government, and throughout society. Real progress can only be made by mainstreaming gender through the development of all policies, strategies and institutional practices to ensure that boys and girls are accorded equal opportunity.

**3.4** The experience of Guinea, cited in *A Better World for All*[27] is instructive. Guinea managed to double the percentage of girls enrolled in school over the period 1991-98. It did so by taking action to redress discrimination, and to cater for the particular needs of girls; for example, by providing separate latrines. But the key lesson is that this was done consciously as an integral part of the government's education policy.

### Inclusion requires flexibility

**3.5** Even governments committed to UPE may miss out a lot of children if they focus exclusively on rolling out the existing formal system. Including all children requires a flexibility of response which recognises the diverse circumstances in which children live. It is also clear that the cost of reaching marginalised children is higher than the average, and resource-constrained governments may need to look at cost-effective and imaginative alternatives to the formal system. The use of low cost suitcase radios in Northern Uganda offers one model. There is much to learn about inclusion from experience in India with non-formal programmes, which are condensed, but use curricula and materials similar to those in the formal system. Lessons are delivered through part-time teaching, including by volunteers, at a time and place convenient to learners, using village and local community facilities. A range of experimental approaches is being piloted in other countries, but flexibility and variety in design and delivery are the key common characteristics.

### Demand matters

**3.6** Governments and funding agencies have often tended to think of primary education largely as a service which is supplied. Thanks to greater availability of household survey data, and to larger exercises such as the *Voices of the Poor*[28] consultation, much more is known now about demand, and particularly what motivates parents to send their children to school, and how to keep them there.

[27] IMF/OECD/UN/World Bank (2000), *2000 A Better World For All: Progress Towards the International Development Goals*. Washington.
[28] World Bank (1999), *Poverty Trends and Voices of the Poor*. Washington: World Bank.

3.7 Poor households face significant opportunity costs if they decide to send their children to school rather than retain their labour in the home or send them to work elsewhere. For this reason, the perception of both parents and children of the quality of education on offer is crucial. Their views on what constitutes quality may often be at variance with those of government officials or funding agencies. Recent consultations undertaken in Uganda and India both showed that parents place a higher premium than expected on adequate, waterproof school buildings. Parents are also concerned about the availability of opportunities to progress on merit to secondary education or vocational training. Economic incentives are very important for poor households, and demand is very much influenced by the likelihood that children will be able to acquire marketable skills.

3.8 It has also been recognised increasingly that greater participation of parents and communities in the education of their children plays a central role in stimulating demand at a local level, in building pressure for improved quality, and in developing accountability. There is evidence that this is so even where parents are illiterate, but it is clear that literate parents are more likely to recognise the benefits of education and to demand their right to be consulted, and to hold teachers and officials accountable.

**Decentralisation helps**

3.9 Heavily centralised approaches to education planning and management are often ineffective. A more promising approach, which some governments are now adopting, involves central agreement on core objectives, priorities and budget levels, but with decentralisation of responsibility for the management of schools, and for the spending of at least some resources, to the local level, including by school managers. Again, a sector strategy is likely to be effective where there is strong community and parental involvement in schools and in local decision-making.

**Technology – yes, but**

3.10 Experience with the application of new technologies to education over the past decade has been limited-and-difficult-to-evaluate.[29] The evidence is that computers in schools appear to be most effective at the higher levels of the system. Where there has been dramatic improvement, it has been with established technologies, including radio. One key issue is that new information technologies can involve significantly higher recurrent costs, which has clear implications for affordability. The greatest potential for harnessing new technologies to improve quality at the basic level exists where there is a substantial multiplier effect. There is a growing body of evidence that locally managed and maintained technologies, such as radio and electronic networking of teacher and community resource centres, can facilitate and sustain distance learning and reduce or contain the costs of teacher education.

**Education helps the fight against HIV/AIDS**

3.11 HIV/AIDS has the proven potential to undermine all efforts to achieve UPE through reducing the demand for, and the supply of, education. Education, however, can play a key role in preventing the spread of HIV/AIDS and coping with its effects. It can promote behaviour that will reduce the risk of infection, strengthen people's ability to cope with personal or family infection, and help to deal with grief and loss. Importantly, it can generate hope. The experience of Thailand and Uganda shows that government commitment to take action on HIV/AIDS education, including integration into the school curriculum, can be instrumental in reducing the prevalence of the disease.

**Funding agencies need to change too**

3.12 An assessment prepared for the *World Education Forum*[30] judged that international assistance for education since 1990 has been limited in its impact. It has been co-ordinated poorly and has failed to give priority to initiatives that benefit the poor – either directly or indirectly. Many interventions were developed in isolation without consideration of the education sector as a whole or of wider poverty frameworks. There were numerous projects which could not be sustained, and which burdened governments with disparate demands and reporting requirements.

3.13 Most funding agencies would accept this criticism, and many have already begun to move towards more coherent, government-led sector-wide approaches in education, involving more flexible funding, and greater harmonisation of financial procedures and reporting.

[29] Perraton, H. & Creed, C. (2000), *Applying New Technologies and Cost-Effective Delivery Systems in Basic Education*. Draft Thematic Review for Eduction for All 2000 (commissioned by DFID: London).

[30] Bentall, C., Peart, E., Carr-Hill, R., & Cox, A. (2000), *Funding Agency Contributions to Education for All*. Paris: UNESCO

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**3.14** Although this is a recent phenomenon, many important lessons have already been learned at the country level. It is essential that funding agencies do not treat the sector as a giant project, but are prepared to engage in a long-term process of government-led change. A sector-wide approach is not about developing a rigid blueprint for the sector, but rather is an ongoing process of putting in place frameworks and mechanisms which will help to make a difference at the point of educational impact. Ensuring that there is sufficient consultation, participation and ownership at decentralised levels, and by civil society, is proving crucial. The need for funding agencies to focus on key policy issues and support joint sector monitoring, moving away from excessive agency identification with particular programmes and harmonising their own procedures, is also becoming clear, and this too needs to be an ongoing process.

## International commitments pay off

**3.15** Sustained, high-level political commitment and campaigning for education does pay off. Primary education as a foundation for development carries greater weight internationally than it did ten years ago. The *World Declaration on Education for All* and the *UN Convention on the Rights of the Child* are significant reference points and provide a basis for performance assessment and accountability. International awareness campaigns have sustained and heightened understanding of the linkages between education, human rights and development. Setting national and international targets has influenced the thinking and the actions of agencies and governments. Moreover, the connections between education and health, sustainable livelihoods, gender equity, security and democracy have been recognised in the major development fora of the 1990s. NGO campaigns have helped to popularise these values and have gained public support for investment in UPE.

# 4. Meeting the challenge

## Strategies to achieve the education targets

**4.1** Achieving the education targets will require governments to place basic education at the heart of their development policies. The international community will also need to give priority to UPE in their support for national poverty reduction plans and programmes.

**4.2** There is no single short-term solution, no one strategy that ensures success. A combination of measures is required, backed by a collective commitment to sustain support for Education for All.

## Priorities for governments and civil society

**4.3** There is a growing body of knowledge on the importance of primary education and gender equality for poverty reduction. Strong international commitments have been given to the achievement of UPE. The practical experience of countries that have given weight to UPE in their development policies and resource allocations offers valuable comparative data. Together, knowledge, commitment and know how point to **ten key priorities**, addressed primarily but not exclusively to governments.

**Priority 1: Ensuring strong government commitment including increased resources for primary education**

**4.4** The governments of developing countries have prime responsibility for formulating and implementing strategies for UPE and gender equality. Much depends on the political will to make the hard choices necessitated by resource constraints, manifested in a broad-based policy response to poverty which accords appropriate priority to education, and to basic education in particular. Sustained government commitment to Education for All is more likely to come about if there is a strong voice for UPE from its citizens. Governments and representatives of civil society have the responsibility to enable all citizens to have an effective voice in the development of policies and strategies that will ultimately lead to sustainable UPE.

**4.5** One clear demonstration of a government's political commitment to education is the willingness to reallocate resources, both to education and within the education sector itself. To make faster progress towards UPE and other Education for All goals, many countries will need to increase substantially the resources that they commit to basic education, to enable all children to gain access to a quality education. A number of governments could achieve this through the re-orientation of funds away from less productive expenditures, e.g. military spending. But there is also considerable reallocation that can be achieved within the education sector. Too often, the needs of primary education are not met because higher education has more vocal and politically influential constituents. The willingness of governments to take hard policy decisions, such as reforming the financing of higher education, is a clear signal of a determination to establish sustainable systems of primary education. In all cases, improved efficiency in the use of resources is critical. Mechanisms for targeting of resources to specific regions and disadvantaged groups, to offset educational disadvantage, will be an important indication of commitment to education.

**4.6** In countries committed to poverty reduction where, even with increased efficiency and effectiveness, financing from domestic sources is simply inadequate, resources from international funding agencies will be required. This may be particularly the case if faster progress towards UPE is to be made, and if a premium is to be placed on the quality of education.

**Priority 2: Making primary education free**

**4.7** Inclusive education strategies must take into consideration the interrelated dimensions of cost and access. No child should be denied access to a basic education because she or he, their parents or guardians cannot pay for it. Even where education is nominally free, however, some direct costs are often passed on in the form of charges for books, uniforms, exams and transport. These direct costs can reach up to 20% of a family's income, making education unaffordable to many.

**4.8** *The International Forum on Consensus on Principles of Cost-Sharing in Education and Health in Africa* (ECA/UNICEF 1997) asserts that general taxation and other forms of government revenue are more effective, efficient and equitable ways of raising revenue for basic social services than cost-sharing. The allocation of scarce financial resources should be targeted at primary and other

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components of basic education. Cost recovery should be promoted at higher levels in the education system.

**4.9** Free education implies not only that states have a policy of provision for per capita expenses, but that measures are taken to ensure this is not undermined by schools raising compulsory levies from poor parents. While the aim is free primary education, the instant introduction of fee abolition may not be the most appropriate in every context. During a planned transition to free education, targeted incentives and exemptions can lessen the burden on poor people. This is particularly important for retaining girls in school, through scholarships, provision of free textbooks and removing the requirement for uniforms. It can also be effective to focus on merit-based secondary scholarships for poor girls as an incentive for primary enrolment and to help to reduce the gap at the post-primary levels.

**Priority 3: Ensuring commitment to gender equality**

**4.10** Achievement of UPE requires unwavering commitment to gender equality. It needs a consciousness throughout the education system that changes of attitude and practice are necessary. Sector strategies should be underpinned by comprehensive gender analysis (the relationship between genders in specific contexts). Raising awareness and commitment to support gender equality at all levels of the education system needs to be integrated into such startegies.

**4.11** Gender analysis may lead to the conclusion that specific interventions are needed, such as gender awareness training for teachers and school management committees or the development of gender-sensitive learning materials and pedagogy. Interventions that focus specifically on rectifying the disadvantages faced by girls and women are likely to include: programmes to research and raise demand for, and acceptance of, girls' education; support for women's literacy and empowerment; programmes to raise girls' self esteem and life skills; increasing opportunities for women teachers and head teachers; and better protection of girls from sexual harassment by teachers and fellow pupils. Increasingly, the need to develop methodologies for addressing boys' and men's attitudes to girls is being recognised as a vital strategy.

**Priority 4: Ensuring the access and inclusion of *all* children**

**4.12** To improve access will involve tackling a range of issues, including addressing the shortfall of schools or classrooms, and poor maintenance of physical infrastructure. Schools need to be located near where children live. Long distances between home and the nearest school often deter children, and girls in particular, from attending school, or dissuade their families from encouraging their education, for fear of mishap, violence or abuse. School facilities must take account of the special needs of girls, since they are more likely than boys not to attend school or drop out altogether at puberty, if, for example, separate latrines and clean water are not available.

**4.13** Education should be 'inclusive', responding flexibly to the needs and circumstances of all excluded children. Complementary or non-formal primary or pre-primary education programmes acting as alternative delivery structures or bridges into school provide important routes into education and valuable lessons for the formal system. Schools and other educational programmes may need, for example, to adopt flexible calendars and time-tabling, support pre-school education, initiate awareness-raising activities to change attitudes to disability or to minority groups, or develop ways to include a number of languages in the classroom. For schools to be able to respond flexibly to the needs of the excluded implies a degree of decentralisation of management and decision-making to schools. Guidelines for accountability are needed which give incentives for schools to be equitable and inclusive.

**4.14** The needs of working children have to be addressed. Approaches to child labour which involve applying sanctions or throwing children out of work with no other means of support are likely to be counterproductive. The *UN Convention on the Rights of the Child* and *Convention 182* of the ILO, on the *Elimination of the Worst Forms of Child Labour*, require governments to eliminate the worst forms of child labour, meet the basic health and education needs of working children, ensure their protection and enable them to participate in decisions which affect their lives.

**Priority 5: Understanding and strengthening the demand for education**

**4.15** Governments should place greater emphasis on understanding the different priority which poor people may accord to education, and on stimulating demand

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through community involvement and genuine ownership of education. National participatory poverty assessments yield valuable information on the perspectives of the poor and include views on the quality of schooling. They can lead to strategies to ensure that parents understand stated entitlements to education and are in a position to be able to challenge schools that turn away children or demand illegal fees. The interfaces between primary and secondary education, and primary education and employment, need to be the subject of wider national research to inform policy. Both have implications for the type and quality of primary education provided, especially for those children for whom primary schooling is the limit of their formal schooling.

**4.16** The demand for primary education is reflected in children's enrolment and retention rates at school. There are many complementary activities which encourage parents to send their children to school, and to keep them there. These include: early childhood care and development programmes; activities which highlight the value of girls' education; the availability of local and accessible secondary education; adult literacy programmes; community-level interventions to promote health and reduce the workload of women and girls (for example, accessible water and labour-saving technologies); and strong school-community partnerships with the representative involvement of parents, particularly mothers. Civil society should be encouraged to develop its key role in supporting these strategies at local levels.

**Priority 6: Improving quality**

**4.17** The quality of education offered to children is another major determinant of demand. Many children, particularly those from the poorest households, drop out of school or fail to enrol as a direct result of poor quality schooling. Parents will be unwilling to invest in their children's education unless they are convinced of its quality and value.

**4.18** Investing in improving the quality of schooling makes good economic sense if it promotes greater efficiency and affordability by reducing repetition. In Bangladesh, a World Bank study found that four out of five children who had completed five years of primary education failed to attain a minimum learning level[31]. In sub-Saharan Africa, it is estimated that up to 60% of children leave primary school functionally illiterate[32]. This is a waste of human potential, and also a waste of scarce resources.

**4.19** The actual learning experience of each child is at the heart of education. Quality implies developing an *ethos and learning practices* which will be acceptable and understandable to communities, take account of language and culture, and ensure an environment where all children feel safe, valued and hence able to learn. This includes actively promoting equality, respect for fundamental rights and the all-round development of children. Promoting community participation in education is an essential part of this. Community participation in school governance can be an important catalyst for their involvement in local decision-making.

**4.20** Poorly trained, or demotivated, teachers reduce learning opportunities. Improving the quality of teaching and learning means putting teachers at the heart of the learning process. Teachers need to be able to teach effectively, using appropriate methods to help children achieve measurable learning outcomes, particularly in literacy and numeracy. However, they also need to be able to develop good relationships with pupils and the wider community, with an understanding of the disadvantage that accompanies poverty, to promote gender equality, respect diversity and support community development.

**4.21** This requires effective teacher training. Teachers need support close to their schools and ongoing professional development opportunities. Training teachers within their schools as part of a wider process of school development is likely to be particularly appropriate. The design of teacher development programmes should recognise broader issues affecting teacher motivation especially where pay levels are tightly controlled.

**4.22** For teachers to be effective, the curriculum should be manageable, and adaptable to changing local and national contexts. It should provide real learning outcomes, based on adequate (but flexible) teaching and learning time. Improving and sustaining quality requires capacity to assess learning outcomes, and to use assessment to enhance teaching, not just for selection and promotion purposes. It also means making sure that children have access to appropriate and stimulating textbooks, which has been shown to have a significant effect on outcomes.

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31 Greaney, V. & Kellaghan, T. (1996), *Monitoring the Outcomes of Education Systems*. Washington: World Bank.
32 World Bank (1999), *Knowledge and Finance for Education in Africa (draft)*. Washington: World Bank.

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Access to other basic learning resources such as readers, exercise books, pencils and pens will reinforce this positive effect. A child's mother tongue, or widely understood local language, should be used for effective early learning and the acquisition of literacy.

**4.23** Poor learning environments are the norm throughout much of sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia. The active management of the broader physical assets and environment of the school is important. Appropriate low-maintenance buildings, classroom furniture and the provision of clean water and adequate separate-sex latrines are vital, and are often perceived by parents, children and teachers as a significant component of the quality of the service on offer. The development and maintenance of physical learning infrastructures benefits from strong partnerships between communities and those – usually, but not always, governments – who provide the bulk of the resources for school development. The location and the long-term sustainability of new schools benefit from community involvement in resource mapping and the choice of effective construction systems. A more systematic approach to the planning and maintenance of physical assets is needed.

**4.24** Enhancing quality at the school level and practising *whole school development* are dependent upon sufficient decentralisation of responsibility and resources to local and school levels. Support for headteachers is important. There is strong evidence that they are one of the key determinants of school effectiveness, but few have the resources, the training or the delegated authority to manage their schools well. It is important that decisions on school management are taken in response to local needs and priorities, and to facilitate co-ordination with other sectors at the local level.

### Priority 7: Developing an integrated, sector-wide approach to primary education

#### Building partnerships with civil society in support of UPE

**4.25** Education polices and strategies are often set after limited consultation with poor people, and fail to incorporate a sound social analysis that identifies those who are marginalised and excluded. The capacity of governments to listen and learn is not always well developed, and the representative bodies of civil society face the challenge of developing a strong in-country voice in support of UPE and gender equality in education. Adult illiteracy constrains poor people from having this voice, with women being particularly disadvantaged. A weak civil society cannot challenge corruption and inequitable allocations of resources.

**4.26** Consultation with civil society, including children and their parents, so as to ensure participation in policy-making and in the monitoring of delivery on government promises for education, is a key starting point for developing a sector-wide policy and strategy for change. The way in which this is best carried out varies according to context. Sometimes using education personnel at decentralised levels may be effective. In other instances, a national process of poverty assessment incorporating educational issues, and feeding these back into policy-making at national as well as sector level, may be appropriate. Civil society bodies will have an important, proactive role to play in this process.

**4.27** However, consultation should not be considered a one-off event. Mechanisms are needed for ongoing processes of dialogue on policy. This is as important at school level as at national level, and may imply a focus on developing literacy and the ability of poor people, particularly women, to participate in school and local governance. Developing stronger legal frameworks for UPE can be effective for ensuring that people can access their entitlements and hold their governments to account.

#### Developing coherent policies and co-ordinated strategies

**4.28** Education is an integrated sector: appropriate early childhood education can help to develop children's capacity for cognitive learning and promote positive attitudes to school; opportunities to continue to secondary education, or into vocational training, motivate students to complete the primary phase; improved adult literacy encourages parents to send their children to school. This means that UPE cannot be achieved and sustained in isolation. Unfortunately, many primary education development strategies and programmes designed to enhance equitable access and quality remain isolated from each other and from the rest of the education system, sometimes with disconnected or contradictory objectives.

**4.29** Very few countries have mainstreamed gender analysis within their education policies, strategies and sector management processes. A strong commitment to attitudinal change, and to the development of educational institutions that mainstream strategies for attaining gender equality in schooling, is still relatively rare.

4.30 While there are often international lessons to be learned, sector policy and strategy needs to be based on very specific sets of country circumstances. Nevertheless, key features of a successful strategy are likely to reflect fully the priorities of poor people, encompass sufficient gender and social analysis, articulate linkages across the sector and, within a framework of common objectives, provide the flexibility that allows for a diversity of responses at decentralised and school levels.

### Financing education effectively

4.31 Constraints on public resources have limited the ability of many countries to address the challenges of UPE. This particularly applies to sub-Saharan Africa. Since the mid-eighties, public expenditure on education as a proportion of GDP in Africa has decreased in 15 countries, and is now less than 3% in 12, some of which have low levels of primary education provision. But the challenge is not just about *how much* funding is allocated to education, but *how efficiently and effectively* these resources are used. In many of the countries with the worst education indicators, education expenditure is skewed towards the upper levels, where participation is low and dominated by high-income groups. This is often the result of a lack of political commitment to tackle vested interests, exacerbated by insufficient capacity within governments to develop and implement pro-poor education strategies.[33]

4.32 Within the education sector itself, hard choices will have to be made. In progressing to free provision of primary education, should this policy be introduced in one go or should it be staggered and gradual? In many countries, teachers' salaries consume the vast majority of the primary education budget, leaving few resources available for learning materials. Difficult trade-offs need to be made in such cases between, for example, class size and non-salary expenditure. There are choices to be made also about the pace of school construction and between technologies. More broadly, governments need to make decisions about the allocation of budgetary resources between the different levels of education. Willingness to address these complex and difficult issues is itself a strong indication of commitment.

4.33 The potential role of the non-state sector as a provider of services, or as a source of finance, is neglected in many national policy frameworks. The extent of involvement of the private sector (including non-governmental organisations and religious institutions) is often seen as an indicator of poor provision, access and quality in the state sector. But the private sector's role need not be restricted to 'mopping up' those failed by government schools. It can be a vibrant addition to the education sector, including as a source of replicable innovation.

4.34 The resources needed for education cannot be treated in isolation. Governments face a range of legitimate competing claims on their limited budgets. They have to make decisions about what allocations to key sectors they can afford and sustain. The evidence from local analysis of the effects of different policy decisions on poor people is vital, as is the use of international evidence on the use of 'gender budgeting', social analysis and the relative effectiveness of different strategies in different contexts. A further challenge for governments is to make allocations between regions on the basis of need, to offset disadvantage. A simplistic focus on allocation by sector without examining allocations within sectors, or on specific targets for allocation of aid and the proceeds of debt relief, can undermine governments' capacity to manage their own development and lead to short-term expansion which cannot be sustained. Furthermore, differing cost structures and different levels of institutional capacity may mean that roughly similar levels of educational expenditure in a group of countries will not necessarily result in similar outcomes.

4.35 Governments need also to begin to evaluate their expenditure against educational outcomes and accept accountability for their actions. *The Education for All Assessment 2000* has held governments up to scrutiny for their performance towards achieving UPE, and governments have reaffirmed their commitments. *The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child* presents another means of holding governments to account through its reporting arrangements.

### Strengthening the capacity of institutions for planning, management, monitoring and accountability

4.36 Capacity-building and the strengthening of education institutions at all levels needs to be an integral part of effective educational reform. Key areas include sector policy analysis, managing processes of change, and effective monitoring within systems which are becoming

[33] Colclough, C. & Al-Samarrai, S. (1998), *Achieving Schooling for All: Budgetary Expenditures on Education in sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia* (1998). London: DFID.

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increasingly decentralised. Capacity to plan, manage and report on expenditure is critical not only to the achievement of greater effectiveness, but also to improved transparency and accountability. Real ownership by governments requires capacity to lead effective partnerships with funding agencies, NGOs and the private sector, and to manage the recruitment and deployment of technical assistance. Capacity-building efforts will be most effective within a broader context of public service reform which includes training, staff development and appropriate incentives for performance, at all levels in the system.

**4.37** Developing effective public-private partnerships will often be an important concern. In some countries private and religious foundation schools sustain education, and many have, for example, helped communities to apply for government-aided status. The private sector may be able to relieve pressure on government by developing sustainable private education options, offering choice, specialism and the sharing of facilities and expertise. However, private schools can also attract the best teachers from the public sector and draw influential community members away from support for state schools. Certain NGOs may be able to support governments in meeting the needs of some of the most difficult to reach children, piloting approaches that can be scaled up and sustained. More broadly, the education sector is increasingly served by private consultants, textbook publishers, Information and Communication Technology (ICT) providers and construction firms. These may offer positive implications for efficiency and quality, and a clearer focus of governments on their core tasks of policy setting and monitoring. But, there will need to be strong leadership from governments in the development of such partnerships to ensure that the goals of achieving equitable access and quality in education remain paramount.

### Developing cross-sectoral linkages in support of education

**4.38** Development in the education sector cannot be viewed in isolation. It has to be connected with poverty reduction and development initiatives in other sectors. Good economic policies conducive to private investment, to growth, to innovation and to job creation, are of paramount importance. There is clear evidence that in deciding whether to send their children to school, which, even if nominally free can still carry significant opportunity costs, parents take into account the differences in wage and job prospects between educated and uneducated workers. Good policies, including openness to trade and ideas, coupled with effective investment in education, can create a virtuous circle: higher growth potential raises the perceived rate of return from education, which increases demand and the willingness to pay both via taxes and private contributions, which permits higher investment.

**4.39** Health and nutrition policies have an important influence on education. Early childhood nutrition and basic care impact strongly on children's learning capacity[34]. Strategies to give access to reproductive health care tend to stabilise population growth, which has positive implications for sustaining education, and for individual families' ability to feed and educate their children. Policies on agriculture, the environment and rural livelihoods can reduce the workload of the poor, particularly that of women and girls. This in turn can improve their access to, and retention in, schools.

**4.40** Policies on infrastructure will be important where this affects asset planning and management, school design and construction and the availability of water, sanitation and latrines. *The Habitat Agenda for Sustainable Human Settlements* (UN 1996) offers important reference points for linking community well-being with education. The availability of clean water and sanitation in homes and schools greatly affects child health and performance in school. Unhealthy children cannot learn and the reduction of waterborne diseases will have a positive impact on learning opportunities. The impact is particularly important for girls who also bear the burden of having to collect the water.

**4.41** National gender policies and strong equal opportunities legislation which inform and emphasise the value of increased gender equity for individuals and society have the potential to impact on attitudes to, and practice of, girls' education. Studies indicate that the benefits of educating girls accrue from generation to generation. Gender aware policies and strategies can increase opportunities for women teachers and managers and give access to literacy for adult women, allowing them to play a stronger role in their children's education. They can also catalyse childcare initiatives, freeing girls to attend school and encouraging better preparedness of young children to enter school.

[34] Smith, L. & Haddad, L. (forthcoming), cited in Fritzshel, H. & Mohan, U., 'The Fruits of Girl's Education', in *2020 Vision*, Washington: International Food Policy Research Institute 1999.

**4.42** Action on child labour is vital in many countries. Cross-sectoral programmes are needed to help to meet children's physical, emotional and educational needs whilst facilitating their transfer into schooling or into employment as young adults.

**4.43** The other DFID papers in this target strategy series draw attention to these linkages.

### Priority 8: Taking action on HIV/AIDS

**4.44** Primary education provides opportunities to educate and alert children to the potential danger of HIV infection before they are sexually active. This can be reinforced at secondary and higher education levels and through non-formal and public education programmes. A strategic approach will necessitate close co-operation between ministries of health and education within the framework of a National AIDS Control Plan. It will involve the development of new materials, incorporation of HIV prevention awareness into teacher training and school curricula, and gender training. It will also require new practices within schools and the education system as a whole, possibly including alternative delivery systems. Protection of vulnerable children, particularly girls, should be ensured through child rights awareness programmes and education law.

**4.45** The impact of HIV/AIDS on education systems requires more urgent attention from governments. They need to address the recruitment, training and support of teachers, including those suffering from AIDS, and the strengthening of community safety nets to deal with HIV/AIDS affected children, including orphans. In many countries, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, but increasingly in Asia, the cost of HIV/AIDS to the education system will have to be factored into government resource planning. The difficulties of predicting future pupil numbers and teacher requirements will be compounded. In Zambia, for example, projection of deaths from AIDS suggest that there may be 20% fewer children in the system than would have been predicted using recent data on population growth trends. Responding to this challenge will require new, decentralized planning models that allow schools and local administrations sufficient flexibility to react quickly to changing circumstances. At school level, a whole school approach to school management and development, which encourages community support to teaching and allows for new staff to be quickly absorbed and trained on the job, is likely to be vital.

### Priority 9: Harnessing technology

**4.46** The new technologies that are available internationally offer the potential to contribute to the achievement of the education targets if their application is conceived and defined as responding to priority needs within the education sector as a whole, including the collection and analysis of reliable data. This will mean analysing and projecting the future costs and uses of technology for the delivery of education and training, for example by distance learning, and examining the curriculum changes necessary to include learning *about*, and learning to *use*, information technology in education – for instance the role of the Internet. Ministries of education should undertake strategic planning for future investment in new technologies, particularly at secondary and higher levels of education, including the training of teachers.

**4.47** Governments should determine the right combination of technologies – old and new – which will respond best to the educational needs and circumstances of all children and students. An approach which encourages and enables teachers to use a combination of learning resources and technologies will be more effective than one which promotes a new and untried technology on schools, regardless of context. Technological innovations require management systems that are sensitive to the interests of users, and take account of the need for adequate resources for recurrent software costs and training. Evidence suggests that it is "cheaper and easier, to introduce a form of technology into education, and keep it working, where education is riding on the back of large-scale developments by governments and the private sector"[35].

**4.48** The importance of tried and tested older technologies, such as textbooks, should not be neglected. Radio, in particular, has the potential to be more widely used. It can support teachers in the classroom and help to ensure that parents and communities understand their rights and entitlements to education, have information with which they can monitor service delivery, and be mobilized to support education.

**4.49** Developing communication technologies for education will usually require strong national partnerships

[35] Perraton, H. & Creed, C. (1999), *Applying New Technologies and Cost-Effective Delivery Systems in Basic Education*. Thematic Review for Education for All 2000 (commissioned by DFID: London).

with the private sector, from which important lessons can be learned. But leadership will be needed to ensure that partners in the private sector recognise the importance of the objectives of access, equity and quality.

**Priority 10: Responding to conflict and preparing for reconstruction**

**4.50** Education can be harnessed in conflict prevention, in mitigating the effects of conflict on children, and in reconstructing lives after conflict. Conflict prevention requires addressing issues of equitable development in the education sector. Issues to be considered include language in education policy, rights education and equity in resource allocation. The curriculum should be developed to equip children with skills that enable them to address conflict issues in their own lives. This may include the opportunity to participate in the running of the school.

**4.51** Where conflict is ongoing, measures need to be taken to protect vulnerable children, girls in particular, and to maintain some form of education provision. Schooling is an important institution in the lives of children and its continuation can assist them and their communities in coping with the effects of conflict. Displaced children need innovative approaches to ensure that their education is not seriously disrupted.

**4.52** Post-conflict reconstruction entails developing a process that enables children whose education has been disrupted to restart schooling. Actions must be taken to deal with the effects of conflict on children including rape, violence, psychological trauma, disability, the rehabilitation of child combatants and bereavement. Priority should be given to rebuilding the community and putting the school at the centre of this. Governments need to display political commitment to reconstruction. An important facet of this is re-establishing capacity to collect data on the effects of conflict and on the basis of the information obtained, developing appropriate policies and plans for rebuilding the education infrastructure, physical and human, which can be supported by the international community.

## Priorities for the international community

**4.53** The governments and civil societies of developing countries face immense challenges in attaining Education for All targets. For many, meeting these challenges will continue to require the strategic support of the international community[36], the major strengths of which are the financial resources and the comparative knowledge which can be brought to bear to help define and assist the implementation of national education programmes. The priorities set out above should strongly inform the thinking of international organisations and agencies, including DFID. However, there are a further two key priorities which need to be addressed specifically by the international community.

**Priority 11: Increased development resources and new and more effective ways of deploying them**
**Financing Education for All**

**4.54** As set out under *Priority 1*, achieving and sustaining UPE will require governments to allocate an adequate share of national income to basic education. This may imply the reallocation of resources within the education sector or the reallocation of funds from other lower priorities within the government budget. In many cases, even with improved allocation of domestic resources, additional funding will be needed from development agencies. Such funding should increasingly be to the sector as a whole, within a sound, medium-term budgetary framework. While proportions vary, funding agencies should in general allocate a larger share of their resources to support for primary and basic education. Particular priority should be accorded to those countries with a strong political commitment to Education for All, and with clear strategies for delivering it. No governments seriously committed to universal primary education within a sustainable framework should be thwarted in the achievement of this objective by lack of resources[37].

**4.55** Debt relief provides scope for a significant new contribution to the achievement of the International Development Targets in a number of countries. Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) relief will now be granted in the context of a comprehensive, fully-budgeted

[36] The concept of *international community* includes governments and institutions from the North and the South, international financial institutions, multilateral development organisations and bilateral funding agencies. The many representatives of civil society and international NGOs, business interests, including corporations with the potential to bring the benefits of Information Communication Technology (ICT) to education, religious bodies, academic communities and the global public at large: all play or have the potential to perform important roles in achieving UPE. This is a broad community which cuts across the developed and developing worlds.

[37] The commitment made by the World Education Forum in Dakar was that "We affirm that no countries seriously committed to Education for All will be thwarted in their achievement of this goal by a lack of resources." *The Dakar Framework for Action* (2000).

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Poverty Reduction Strategy. Ideally, where such a strategy exists, the savings which accrue from debt relief should be treated in the same way as other government resources, within an overall budgetary framework, with a focus on key national priorities, including education.

**4.56** Resources are important, and it is imperative that international, external support facilitates the development of national education systems which can be sustained. This means resources allocated to education need to grow at a rate which allows governments to address the other critical elements of their Poverty Reduction Strategies, and which is consistent with the development of capacity to use these resources effectively.

**4.57** Global numbers, such as UNICEF's estimate[38] that UPE by 2010 would cost an additional US $7–8 billion a year, can be useful as a campaigning and awareness-raising tool. Their disadvantage is that they can give an impression that all that is needed is extra resource allocations from external funding agencies. In practice, a country specific approach is needed to assess the financing required to achieve the International Development Targets for education and to set them within the broader budgetary and economic context. This requires analysis by ministries of education and finance of the adequacy of the tax base and other sources of funding. The scope for improved internal financial efficiency, the need for differential allocations to different sub-sectors of education, and the challenge of ensuring that mechanisms are in place to meet the needs of those currently unable to benefit from primary education, all require attention. And there should be greater recognition and exploitation of the complementarity that exists between education and other sector investments.

### New ways of working

**4.58** An approach to education which is based on developing a broad commitment to policy change requires a significant shift away from discrete projects as the main model of co-operation. While projects have frequently produced particular improvements in education in specific contexts, they have often had limited sustainability. For international funding agencies working at country level, it is likely to be more effective to provide co-ordinated, flexible support to sector policy improvements, where these give high priority to UPE and the education of girls, and where they are fully integrated into governments' budgetary frameworks.

**4.59** This is particularly true in countries where development assistance is significant as a proportion of overall government expenditure and, as a consequence, disparate project inputs may prevent coherent sector strategy development and drain capacity. In such countries, funding agencies are likely to be involved in strategic discussions at a policy level, including discussions on development objectives, spending priorities and the broader reform agenda. This provides opportunities for supporting sustained and effective development of education, but also carries the responsibility to develop trust and openness. Developing a clear *Code of Conduct*[39] can be a useful way of ensuring that both governments and funding agencies are clear on their roles and responsibilities, and joint commitments.

**4.60** Flexible sector support requires a good policy framework, supported by adequate mechanisms for implementation and management. The key objectives for the sector should be fully owned by the government (at all levels) and based on consultation with civil society, as well as sound analysis and knowledge of successful strategies in similar contexts. Where countries are in transition towards a sector-wide approach, funding agencies can assist governments to make more solid commitments, open up policy debate on gender and education and move towards good sector policies. To support this process, development agencies should continue to provide aid through appropriate projects, located more consciously in the broad sector framework, and should actively promote improved co-ordination. In countries where conditions for a meaningful sector dialogue do not yet exist, development agencies might choose instead to support efforts to improve the macroeconomic climate, to enhance sector analysis and management capacity, including budget management, or to enhance local participation in education. Development agencies need to work on co-ordinating their reporting and financing systems so that they are in a stronger position to support more coherent sector planning and monitoring.

**4.61** In large countries such as China and India, which are less dependent on aid within their education sectors, project assistance can be used effectively by governments to pilot new initiatives, within their own policy

[38] UNICEF (1999), *State of the World's Children*. New York: UNICEF.
[39] See for example the European Union's *Code of Conduct for Education Sector Funding Agencies*.

frameworks and systems. Development agencies should give priority to supporting initiatives which have the potential to be scaled-up or replicated.

**4.62** Moving from projects to sectoral working requires greater interdisciplinarity in development agencies. Education specialists should contribute to the analysis of the social, economic and institutional context of an individual country, engage in in-country policy and strategy formulation, and take a long-term view of possible commitments consistent with the planning of national governments.

**4.63** This more strategic approach to support for the education sector is a key priority that has implications for the work of most international organisations, including the major financial institutions. The World Bank makes a major contribution in both knowledge and research, and financing. It is the single largest source of external financing for education, and is involved in the sector in 87 countries. World Bank education strategies give priority to basic education and propose giving greater support to sector-wide approaches. Support for the Comprehensive Development Framework, which is being piloted in selected countries, and for Poverty Reduction Strategies, should give further weight to this approach. The Bank's proposals for accelerated progress towards UPE in countries strongly committed to UPE may provide the focus for new country-led, internationally supported initiatives. The Regional Development Banks have the potential to play a stronger role in support of this approach. The IMF plays an important role in promoting stability and encouraging sustainable economic growth. It should be encouraged to do so in ways which ensure that poverty concerns are addressed, particularly as these relate to both the demand and the supply of primary education and their impact on girls' access to schooling.

**4.64** Within the UN system a more coherent and co-ordinated approach, regionally and internationally, but especially at country level, is required. A clear definition of both comparative advantage and the potential for mutually reinforcing co-operation is needed. Programmes should contribute demonstrably to the realisation of the education targets within countries as distinct from centrally driven programmes.

**4.65** UNESCO was charged by the *World Education Forum* to co-ordinate 'Education for All partners', to further international political commitment to education and to help mobilise technical and financial resources. UNESCO plans to place the achievement of Education for All at the heart of its activities. UNICEF is leading a global UN initiative on girls' education. A coalition of agencies led by the Joint UN Programme on HIV/AIDS (UNAIDS) is growing around HIV/AIDS and education. Several other UN organisations have education programmes in their areas of responsibility, including the UN Population Fund (UNFPA), the Office of the UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the UN Development Programme (UNDP) and the ILO. These initiatives deserve support where they are responding demonstrably to the priorities of member countries. In the past UN agencies have tended to vie with each other rather than collaborate. A stronger commitment to measurable outcomes and joint working could greatly increase the effectiveness of the UN system.

**4.66** The European Commission will need to improve the targeting and the quality of its education sector support and to achieve much better harmony with the work of agencies within individual countries. A sound policy framework is in place and priority has been accorded to basic education, but appraisal and disbursement procedures are slow.

**4.67** Bilaterals have certain strengths in their long-standing relationships with particular countries, which may enable a strong in-country presence or a rapid response to meeting specific needs, for example for technical assistance. Some have specific expertise in education and/ or gender analysis. In education as in other sectors a primary need will be to loosen the procedural ties which limit flexible ways of working without loss of accountability to national parliaments. The priorities and roles for DFID are discussed further in the section 5.

**4.68** There are new roles for international NGOs, religious bodies and the private sector in contributing to national and global efforts, in ways which bring the particular strengths of these institutions to bear. NGOs may be asked to work more closely with governments, to help pilot new approaches and strategies. They may support schools and communities in monitoring the delivery of promised services and the impact of policy reform, or managing increasingly decentralised budgets and responsibilities. In countries where the commitment to education is not yet clearly articulated, or translated into policy, NGOs may be able to increase their awareness-raising and advocacy role, to support poor communities not only through direct assistance, but in the forming of alliances to assert their right to education more effectively.

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NGOs were active in the run-up to the *World Education Forum*. Political commitment will be stronger if the voice of civil society actively supports the education targets. International campaigns by NGOs such as ActionAid and OXFAM are helping to heighten global awareness and promote international support for education.[40]

**Priority 12: Promoting information and knowledge**

**Better information**

**4.69** Strong international leadership is needed to improve international statistics on education. The creation of a new UNESCO Institute of Statistics, which is designed to assist countries in developing their own robust systems of data collection and analysis and provide quality control on international data, is an important international initiative. The *World Education Indicators* Project and the collective work of the UN, the World Bank and the Development Assistance Committee of the OECD in monitoring progress against the International Development Targets is also significant.

**The sharing of knowledge**

**4.70** Promoting the sharing of research findings and knowledge on important strategic issues (for example effective schools, financial trade-offs, decentralisation) strengthens international action in support of UPE and gender equality. The potential of distance education and the wide range of delivery technologies now available requires further research and the international sharing of experience. One important aspect of this strategy will be to find ways to support the work and networking of researchers in developing countries.

[40] See for example: OXFAM (1999), *Education Now: Breaking the Cycle of Poverty*. Oxford: OXFAM.

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# 5. Priorities for DFID

**5.1** DFID is committed to the achievement of UPE and gender equality as priorities for development. This means making a strong contribution to the international effort to achieve the targets. This commitment is set out within DFID's overarching goal, articulated in 1997 in the UK's White Paper on International Development: *Eliminating World Poverty: A Challenge for the 21st Century*. There are many other international agencies, institutions and organisations similarly committed.

**5.2** The scale of the UPE challenge is such that DFID's contribution must be carefully defined to maximise the use of available resources – financial and human. The threefold strategy, outlined below, is underpinned by the analysis in the preceding chapter, *Meeting the challenge*. It comprises three priorities for action:

1. Contributing to the development and co-ordination of international commitment, policies and programmes designed to achieve Education for All.
2. Strong, well targeted country programmes – with priority to sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia – which will provide strategic assistance to governments and civil societies committed to UPE and gender equality, within sound education sector, poverty and development frameworks.
3. Knowledge and research strategies and outcomes that will contribute to the ability of the international community, including partner countries, to learn lessons, share experience and monitor progress.

**5.3** This approach will enable DFID to build on a number of strengths: it will exploit DFID's decentralised system of technical expertise, continue to promote a multidisciplinary approach to economic and social development, and place education sector work within wider economic and social frameworks. Collectively, this strategy will allow DFID to strengthen dialogue with governments, key international agencies and the organs of civil society, drawing on supportive relationships with UK government departments and other institutions with appropriate expertise and influence.

## Promoting international commitment and action

**5.4** DFID intends to work to help shape and influence international institutions and organisations that have the potential to help realise UPE, promoting and creating consensus on achieving the International Development Targets. DFID will work to improve the technical co-ordination of development assistance for education, especially through sector-wide approaches, in the following ways:

- being proactive in trying to achieve the commitments of the *Dakar Framework for Action*, including the pledge that no country committed to Education for All should be thwarted for lack of resources. It will play its part in UNESCO-led Education for All mechanisms where these are designed to add value to national efforts and improve agency co-ordination. It will help to build critical international capacity in educational statistics, particularly through the UNESCO Institute of Statistics.
- strengthening partnerships for policy dialogue and joint activities with the World Bank, UNICEF, UNESCO, the European Commission, bilateral agencies and international civil society organisations. With the World Bank and the IMF the focus will be on the design of structural reform and sector policy goals, including the priority accorded education in the *Comprehensive Development Framework*. DFID will contribute to the design of debt relief agreements that will enable governments to protect and enhance spending on basic education within national Poverty Reduction Plans.
- working with the European Commission to improve the focus and effectiveness of its assistance to education. It will support Commonwealth activities which facilitate the sharing of experience, and help to strengthen regional programmes and networks where these have the potential to influence policy, share comparative experience and build alliances. The Association for the Development of Education in Africa and Forum for African Women Educationalists are significant examples of influential networks in Africa.
- developing a better understanding of how a 'rights-based' approach to UPE can be effective, including the monitoring of Article 28 of the *UN Convention on the Rights of the Child*.
- promoting DFID's *Action Plan for Promoting Core Labour Standards* which gives priority to the elimination of the

worst forms of child labour and forced or compulsory labour. DFID will encompass child labour in its support for education sector programmes and will continue to assist NGOs in both advocacy and specialist programmes for 'hard to reach' working children.

- supporting cross-cutting initiatives, including the education of girls, education and conflict resolution, the impact of HIV/AIDS on education, building national publishing capacity, and realising the potential of distance education.
- exploiting the potential for utilising Information and Communications Technology, including through the Prime Minister's initiative designed to build private-public partnerships to apply new technologies for education.

## Well-targeted country programmes

**5.5** DFID's financial commitment to education is continuing to grow. £400 million has been committed to education since 1997, almost all to basic education. This is indicative of an expanding pipeline of programmes, increasingly in support of sector policies agreed with national governments and co-ordinated with other funding agencies. Many countries are in the process of agreeing and implementing long-term, broad-based strategies to eradicate poverty, which include strategies for the development of the education sector. In the future, DFID's support for education in such countries will consist of longer-term, flexible funding, channelled through governments' own budgetary systems.

**5.6** In its dialogue with governments DFID will be guided primarily but not exclusively by the need to expand and improve the quality of primary education and the need to monitor and promote gender equality both in terms of enrolment and completion. The impact of HIV/AIDS on education systems, and education as a means of combating the spread of the pandemic will gain increasing attention. In order to work effectively in these realms, DFID will play a strong role in generating and sharing knowledge.

**5.7** Section 2 of this paper summarised the scale and geography of the UPE challenge. ***Sub-Saharan Africa*** **presents the greatest challenge.** DFID works in Africa, primarily but not exclusively, with countries with which the UK has had long educational links and partnerships. But work in Mozambique and Rwanda is indicative of a willingness to respond to the needs of countries emerging from conflict and faced with major challenges in achieving the education targets. DFID has substantive programmes not only where there is the potential to have a significant impact on national indicators, but also where there is the opportunity to support a comprehensive approach to education and development which addresses issues of poverty, gender discrimination and social exclusion, as in Uganda. But clearly DFID is only a part of the international development system. Our contribution to international development agencies will seek to ensure that support for UPE is available to all countries.

**5.8** ***South Asia*** is the other major sub-region where the challenge of UPE, and gender equality in particular, deserves continued DFID support in partnership with national and state governments. DFID has been involved significantly in assisting the development of primary education in India, Bangladesh and Pakistan. The place of adult literacy in reducing poverty and promoting primary education will receive growing support.

**5.9** These regional priorities will not exclude engagement with other countries where support from DFID for achieving and sustaining UPE can make a significant contribution. Where universal enrolment into primary education has been very largely achieved, as in the Caribbean, the South Pacific and parts of South and East Asia, but where the quality of primary education or expansion into secondary education is important for the reduction of poverty, these issues should be the focus for assistance.

**5.10** In those countries where a strong bilateral programme does not exist, DFID will work to encourage a sector-wide approach. This will involve strengthening education management systems as well as engaging in policy debate which addresses the key issues surrounding quality and access for primary education, literacy and skills development. Where conflict rules out direct DFID assistance, emphasis will be on developing a political solution without which reconstruction cannot take place. Countries emerging from conflict have special needs. If assistance is agreed, education opportunities for peace building will be considered.

**5.11** Where there is no significant DFID country programme in countries of high demonstrated need (for example in the Sahel), it will be more appropriate to share knowledge and contribute to the design and funding of programmes undertaken by other bilateral development partners, or by the multilateral institutions to which DFID contributes, for example the World Bank, the EC and the UN agencies.

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## Knowledge and research strategies

**5.12** DFID will develop its knowledge and research strategies in order to contribute to the achievement of the targets. Better opportunities for sharing programme outcomes will be created and the needs of different audiences, especially practitioners in developing countries will be addressed. While the Internet provides a powerful tool for this, DFID will also be proactive in seeking greater working cohesion with other agencies through more frequent dialogue, secondments and joint knowledge programmes.

**5.13** DFID will develop an education knowledge and research programme which gives priority to understanding the ways and means of attaining and sustaining UPE and gender equality. It will give increasing attention to the relationship between education and globalisation: the demands which globalisation places on education systems and the benefits which can be gained from the processes of international knowledge sharing through information technology.

**5.14** A primary purpose of DFID-supported research will be to contribute to the thinking and practice of those charged with defining national policies and plans. Therefore, an important research criterion will be the development of national, in-country, research capacity.

## Ways of working

**5.15** The threefold strategy, outlined above, has important implications for DFID's ways of working for education.

**5.16** Effective country programmes require in-house skills to undertake good sector-wide analysis. This includes the ability to engage in policy analysis on issues of access, quality and equity, education financing and change management, and a wide appreciation of the social and economic environment of children who are excluded or who fail to complete primary school. It needs an enhanced understanding of how education is affected by gender and the options which are available to promote gender equality. It necessitates an ability to mainstream education issues across sectors in support of the other International Development Targets in income poverty, health, the environment and governance. The skills profile demanded by this agenda is different to that required for project design and management and has implications for programme organisation and management, and for the design of professional development programmes.

**5.17** Sector-wide working also requires the ability to work to different agendas than just that of DFID, to adapt and absorb differing views on education priorities, and to negotiate with governments and the international community. DFID's traditional timescales, developed for projects, will change. In addition, acceptance of the difficulties of earmarking or tracking individual financing contributions to the sector will have to be acknowledged.

**5.18** The wider international agenda requires a strong professional input into the work of key agencies and institutions, especially the World Bank, the EC and the UN system. It needs multidisciplinary linkages within DFID across advisory, international and regional departments. It necessitates core sector capacity able to follow and influence international initiatives and systems and to be proactive in support of joint programmes.

**5.19** Within the UK, greater attention will be given to creating public awareness of education as a basic human right for all children and of the importance of realising the education targets through support for Development Education.

**5.20** DFID will work closely with other government departments to contribute to other international agendas (including debt, human rights and child labour), and will draw on the experience and the strengths in UK education, particularly through the Department for Education and Employment. The diverse capacities of UK academic institutions will be engaged as will the major international NGOs with an interest in poverty elimination and education.

# 6. Monitoring progress

## Assessing performance

**6.1** The importance of reliable data and the capacity to use it well, is a thread which runs through this paper. Achieving targets, whether they are for UPE in 2015, or the sometimes more ambitious targets which some countries have set themselves, requires that priorities are set, resources allocated, performance monitored and impact assessed against learning and equity outcomes. Good, gender-disaggregated data and analysis are essential, if progress is to be properly measured and lessons learned. They are also essential for the accountability which developing country governments must have to their citizens, the accountability which funding agencies must have to those who provide their resources, and for the accountability which development partners, both governments and funding agencies, must have to each other. At the international level, progress towards meeting the targets needs to be captured systematically to allow for meaningful comparative analysis.

**6.2** In all of this, the emphasis must be on institutionalising monitoring and evaluation within government systems, rather than on producing data to satisfy particular funding agency requirements. There is a set of indicators linked to the International Development Targets, which in the case of education relate to enrolment and literacy. They form a core around which governments, civil society and funding agencies can focus, but they do not, by themselves, capture all that needs to be known about education. Where other useful statistics can be collected relatively easily – for example, gender-disaggregated attendance data – the core can be expanded. The data set can be enriched in cost-effective ways by integrating qualitative approaches – random surveys of parents, for example – into government monitoring and management systems. Concentrating on a limited, agreed range of key indicators will minimise the burden on scarce human and other resources, and should help to provide a framework for co-ordinated efforts to enhance capacity.

**6.3** Improved education outcomes take time to materialise and the process by which they are produced is complex. In any given country situation, there will be a range of actions which would not individually deliver the impact which is sought, but which must be taken to ensure that targets are met. Monitoring progress against these "necessary but insufficient" conditions can both allow governments to check that their programmes remain on track, and permit funding agencies to assure their domestic constituencies that their money is being used effectively.

**6.4** International agencies will be particularly interested in indicators of the breadth and depth of government commitment. These might include the agreement of coherent policy statements and well-defined and costed education strategies, supported by evidence that commitment is manifested in the allocation of resources and in actual expenditure. They would also wish to see the existence of mechanisms to engage civil society from the level of the household upwards in the definition and delivery of the government's education strategy. Both governments and funding agencies will be keen to identify practical milestones of achievement which might include interim targets for new or refurbished classrooms, minimal levels of training for all teachers, agreed percentage increases in the number of women headteachers, increased allocations to non-salary expenditure, and greater availability of basic texts and other learning materials in classrooms.

## Developing capacity

**6.5** The capacity to produce accurate and timely data, to undertake analysis and to feed back lessons into policy-making, is weak in many countries. DFID will work closely with other agencies to enhance this vital capacity, recognising that it cannot be built sustainably in part of a government system in isolation, and that assistance needs to be integrated into broader-based programmes of government reform. The effectiveness of capacity-building efforts will be far greater if they are concentrated around a set of core indicators, and not focused on diverse funding agency interests, as too often happened in the past. Work is underway, including through the DAC, to define and agree a workable set of core indicators. More attention will also need to be given to the lower levels of the system, including to basic financial reporting, since these provide the essential underpinnings for sound, integrated monitoring and evaluation.

**6.6** International capacity to collate and analyse education statistics needs to be strengthened. DFID strongly supports the establishment of UNESCO's new Institute of Statistics, which has the potential to promote the development of capacity needed to address this crucial

task. The Institute may need to continue top work through regional organisations, such as the National Education Statistical Information Systems project that is working in sub-Saharan Africa. The assessment to prepare for the *World Education Forum* provided important signposts for further international action to improve performance assessment, and highlighted the core indicators which will better enable the international community to monitor progress against the targets. Programmes such as the Southern African Consortium for the Measurement of Education Quality, offer useful models for the development of capacity at regional and country levels.

6.7 There are challenges here too for DFID and other agencies. The move away from the discrete project model towards the provision of more flexible support to governments' own education strategies, requires a change of approach to monitoring and evaluation. It broadens the notion of accountability, moving away from a narrow concentration on the transformation of agency-funded inputs into project outputs, to a focus on our contribution to education outcomes as part of a joint endeavour between governments and development partners. This shared accountability approach means that, in assessing their own effectiveness, funding agencies should rely increasingly on the sort of performance information which should be routinely produced by governments themselves for their own use.

6.8 This new approach is reflected in the targets which DFID has set itself under the Public Service Agreement covering the period 2001–04. The linkages between DFID's inputs – spending and activities – and impact in terms of progress towards the targets are complex and difficult to quantify. However the PSA provides a logical basis for linking the performance of DFID programmes with the achievement of its overall objectives, and in consequence with the contribution which the Department is making towards reaching the international development targets.

## Learning lessons

6.9 The availability of better data at national and international levels will allow governments, civil society and agencies to get a clear view of progress towards the targets, to identify regions, countries or even districts where there are particular problems, and to take appropriate action. This will need to be informed by a deeper understanding of what policies are working and why, which groups remain excluded and why, and so on. This underlines the need for a qualitative element in monitoring and evaluation systems, and for a more effective application of research and knowledge resources to understanding the process of change. It also underlines the need for increased opportunities for developing countries to share experiences, and to learn from each other.

# Annex 1

**Statistical tables: Education State of the World's Children 2000: UNICEF**

| | Under-5 mortality rank | Adult literacy rate 1980 M | F | 1995 M | F | Primary school enrolment ratio 1990-1997 (gross) M | F | 1990-1997 (net) M | F | Primary school attendance % 1990-1998 (net) M | F | % of primary entrants reaching grade 5 1990-95 | Sec school enrolment ratio 1990-96 (gross) M | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Afghanistan** | **4** | 30 | 6 | 46 | 16 | 64 | 32 | 42 | 15 | 36 | 11 | 43 | 32 | 11 |
| Albania | **90** | – | – | – | – | 100 | 102 | 95 | 97 | – | – | 82 | 35 | 35 |
| Algeria | **88** | 55 | 26 | 71 | 45 | 113 | 101 | 97 | 91 | 95 | 90 | 94 | 65 | 62 |
| Andorra | **165** | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Angola | **2** | 16 | 7 | 56 | 29 | 95 | 88 | – | – | – | | – | 34 | – |
| Antigua and Barbuda | **133** | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Argentina | **126** | 94 | 94 | 96 | 96 | 114 | 113 | 95 | 95 | – | – | – | 73 | 81 |
| Armenia | **104** | – | – | 100 | 99 | 86 | 90 | – | – | – | – | – | 85 | 91 |
| Australia | **175** | – | – | – | – | 103 | 103 | 97 | 97 | – | – | 99 | 153 | 153 |
| Austria | **175** | – | – | – | – | 100 | 101 | 100 | 100 | – | – | 99 | 105 | 101 |
| Azerbaijan | **80** | – | – | 100 | 99 | 109 | 106 | – | – | – | – | – | 73 | 81 |
| Bahamas | **130** | 93 | 94 | 95 | 96 | 95 | 94 | 92 | 96 | – | – | 78 | 88 | 91 |
| Bahrain | **133** | 79 | 59 | 89 | 79 | 105 | 107 | 97 | 100 | – | – | 95 | 91 | 98 |
| Bangladesh | **48** | 41 | 17 | 49 | 26 | 74 | 64 | 66 | 58 | 75 | 76 | 47 | 28 | 14 |
| Barbados | **146** | 97 | 94 | 98 | 97 | 90 | 91 | 78 | 78 | – | – | – | 90 | 80 |
| Belarus | **110** | 99 | 91 | 100 | 98 | 101 | 96 | 87 | 84 | | – | 100 | 91 | 95 |
| Belgium | **165** | 99 | 99 | – | – | 103 | 102 | 98 | 98 | – | – | – | 141 | 151 |
| Belize | **83** | – | – | 70 | 70 | 124 | 118 | 100 | 98 | – | – | 70 | 47 | 52 |
| Benin | **22** | 26 | 10 | 45 | 19 | 96 | 56 | 78 | 46 | 52 | 34 | 61 | 23 | 10 |
| Bhutan | **41** | 41 | 15 | 56 | 28 | 31 | 19 | – | – | – | – | 82 | 7 | 2 |
| Bolivia | **57** | 80 | 59 | 90 | 75 | 99 | 90 | 95 | 87 | 95 | 95 | 60 | 40 | 34 |
| Bosnia and Herzegovina | **137** | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Botswana | **77** | 56 | 59 | 70 | 75 | 111 | 112 | 82 | 86 | – | – | 90 | 63 | 69 |
| Brazil | **85** | 76 | 73 | 83 | 83 | 100 | 96 | – | – | 93 | 94 | 71 | 31 | 36 |
| Brunei Darussalam | **156** | 85 | 68 | 93 | 85 | 109 | 104 | 91 | 91 | – | – | 95 | 71 | 82 |
| Bulgaria | **144** | 97 | 93 | 99 | 97 | 100 | 98 | 93 | 91 | – | – | 95 | 77 | 76 |
| Burkina Faso | **22** | 18 | 4 | 29 | 10 | 48 | 31 | 37 | 24 | 38 | 28 | 75 | 11 | 6 |
| Burundi | **17** | 41 | 16 | 52 | 33 | 55 | 46 | 56 | 48 | – | – | 74 | 9 | 5 |
| Cambodia | **24** | 74 | 23 | 80 | 53 | 142 | 119 | 100 | 90 | – | – | 50 | 30 | 18 |
| Cameroon | **27** | 59 | 30 | 75 | 52 | 93 | 84 | 81 | 71 | 71 | 70 | 66 | 32 | 22 |
| Canada | **165** | – | – | – | – | 103 | 101 | 96 | 94 | – | – | 99 | 107 | 106 |
| Cape Verde | **65** | 65 | 40 | 81 | 61 | 132 | 129 | 100 | 100 | – | – | 60 | 28 | 26 |
| Central African Rep. | **18** | 36 | 12 | 54 | 27 | 71 | 46 | 65 | 43 | 70 | 55 | 24 | 15 | 6 |
| Chad | **13** | 47 | 19 | 62 | 35 | 85 | 44 | 66 | 37 | 44 | 29 | 59 | 16 | 4 |
| Chile | **148** | 92 | 91 | 95 | 95 | 103 | 100 | 89 | 87 | – | – | 100 | 72 | 78 |
| China | **79** | 78 | 51 | 89 | 71 | 121 | 120 | 100 | 100 | 95 | 94 | 94 | 74 | 67 |
| Colombia | **104** | 85 | 84 | 91 | 90 | 119 | 118 | – | – | 90 | 91 | 73 | 70 | 75 |

| | Under-5 mortality rank | Adult literacy rate 1980 M | Adult literacy rate 1980 F | Adult literacy rate 1995 M | Adult literacy rate 1995 F | Primary school enrolment ratio 1990-1997 (gross) M | Primary school enrolment ratio 1990-1997 (gross) F | Primary school enrolment ratio 1990-1997 (net) M | Primary school enrolment ratio 1990-1997 (net) F | Primary school attendance % 1990-1998 (net) M | Primary school attendance % 1990-1998 (net) F | % of primary entrants reaching grade 5 1990-95 | Sec school enrolment ratio 1990-96 (gross) M | Sec school enrolment ratio 1990-96 (gross) F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Comoros | **53** | 56 | 41 | 64 | 50 | 85 | 71 | 58 | 48 | 45 | 42 | 80 | 21 | 17 |
| Congo | **47** | 64 | 38 | 83 | 67 | 119 | 109 | 99 | 93 | – | – | 55 | 62 | 45 |
| Congo, Dem. Rep. | **9** | 75 | 45 | 87 | 68 | 86 | 59 | 71 | 50 | 59 | 53 | 64 | 32 | 19 |
| Cook Islands | **104** | – | – | – | 99 | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Costa Rica | **145** | 92 | 92 | 95 | 95 | 108 | 107 | 87 | 88 | – | – | 88 | 48 | 52 |
| Côte d'Ivoire | **28** | 32 | 13 | 49 | 31 | 81 | 60 | 63 | 47 | 59 | 46 | 75 | 33 | 16 |
| Croatia | **156** | 97 | 88 | 99 | 96 | 87 | 86 | 83 | 82 | – | – | 98 | 81 | 83 |
| Cuba | **160** | 92 | 92 | 96 | 96 | 108 | 104 | 100 | 100 | – | – | 100 | 73 | 82 |
| Cyprus | **156** | 96 | 84 | 98 | 93 | 100 | 100 | 96 | 96 | – | – | 94 | 96 | 99 |
| Czech Rep. | **165** | – | – | – | – | 105 | 104 | 87 | 87 | – | – | 100 | 97 | 100 |
| Denmark | **175** | – | – | – | – | 100 | 99 | 97 | 97 | – | – | 100 | 117 | 122 |
| Djibouti | **26** | 45 | 18 | 60 | 33 | 44 | 32 | 36 | 27 | 73 | 62 | 82 | 17 | 12 |
| Dominica | **133** | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | 84 | – | – |
| Dominican Rep. | **75** | 75 | 73 | 82 | 81 | 103 | 104 | 79 | 83 | 91 | 93 | 58 | 34 | 47 |
| Ecuador | **89** | 85 | 78 | 92 | 87 | 134 | 119 | 97 | 97 | – | – | 85 | 53 | 55 |
| Egypt | **68** | 54 | 25 | 64 | 38 | 109 | 94 | 86 | 74 | 83 | 72 | 98 | 80 | 70 |
| El Salvador | **97** | 71 | 62 | 79 | 73 | 94 | 94 | 78 | 80 | – | – | 77 | 30 | 35 |
| Equatorial Guinea | **20** | 76 | 44 | 89 | 67 | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Eritrea | **45** | – | – | – | – | 59 | 49 | 32 | 29 | 39 | 35 | 70 | 24 | 17 |
| Estonia | **126** | – | – | 98 | 98 | 95 | 93 | 87 | 86 | – | – | 96 | 100 | 108 |
| Ethiopia | **18** | 28 | 11 | 40 | 26 | 47 | 27 | 28 | 19 | – | – | 55 | 13 | 10 |
| Fiji | **120** | 87 | 78 | 94 | 89 | 128 | 127 | 99 | 100 | – | – | 87 | 64 | 65 |
| Finland | **175** | – | – | – | – | 100 | 100 | 99 | 99 | – | – | 100 | 107 | 125 |
| France | **175** | 99 | 98 | – | – | 107 | 105 | 100 | 100 | – | – | 99 | 112 | 111 |
| Gabon | **30** | 54 | 28 | 74 | 53 | – | – | – | – | 87 | 86 | 59 | – | – |
| Gambia | **59** | 37 | 13 | 53 | 25 | 87 | 67 | 72 | 57 | 51 | 43 | 80 | 30 | 19 |
| Georgia | **120** | – | – | 100 | 99 | 85 | 84 | 83 | 83 | – | – | 98 | 74 | 72 |
| Germany | **175** | – | – | – | – | 104 | 103 | 100 | 100 | – | – | 100 | 103 | 101 |
| Ghana | **49** | 57 | 30 | 75 | 53 | 83 | 70 | – | – | 70 | 69 | 80 | 45 | 29 |
| Greece | **162** | 96 | 86 | 98 | 94 | 95 | 94 | 91 | 90 | – | – | 100 | 96 | 96 |
| Grenada | **109** | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Guatemala | **74** | 62 | 46 | 73 | 58 | 90 | 79 | | 61 | 55 | 50 | 26 | 24 | |
| Guinea | **14** | 34 | 11 | 50 | 22 | 63 | 34 | 34 | 17 | 39 | 26 | 80 | 18 | 6 |
| Guinea-Bissau | **11** | 32 | 7 | 48 | 16 | 81 | 47 | 58 | 32 | – | – | 20 | 9 | 4 |
| Guyana | **60** | 96 | 93 | 99 | 97 | 95 | 94 | 87 | 87 | – | – | 91 | 73 | 78 |
| Haiti | **36** | 34 | 28 | 47 | 41 | 58 | 54 | 25 | 26 | 68 | 69 | 47 | 23 | 22 |
| Holy See | **–** | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Honduras | **81** | 63 | 59 | 70 | 69 | 110 | 112 | 89 | 91 | – | – | 60 | 29 | 37 |
| Hungary | **149** | 99 | 99 | 99 | 99 | 105 | 103 | 98 | 97 | – | – | 98 | 97 | 100 |
| Iceland | **175** | – | – | – | – | 99 | 97 | 99 | 97 | – | – | 99 | 105 | 102 |
| India | **49** | 55 | 25 | 64 | 35 | 110 | 90 | – | – | 75 | 61 | 59 | 59 | 39 |
| Indonesia | **71** | 78 | 58 | 90 | 78 | 117 | 112 | 99 | 95 | 94 | 94 | 89 | 52 | 44 |
| Iran | **100** | 62 | 40 | 79 | 63 | 92 | 87 | 83 | 81 | 99 | 93 | 90 | 79 | 69 |

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| | Under-5 mortality rank | Adult literacy rate 1980 M | Adult literacy rate 1980 F | Adult literacy rate 1995 M | Adult literacy rate 1995 F | Primary school enrolment ratio 1990-1997 (gross) M | Primary school enrolment ratio 1990-1997 (gross) F | Primary school enrolment ratio 1990-1997 (net) M | Primary school enrolment ratio 1990-1997 (net) F | Primary school attendance % 1990-1998 (net) M | Primary school attendance % 1990-1998 (net) F | % of primary entrants reaching grade 5 1990-95 | Sec school enrolment ratio 1990-96 (gross) M | Sec school enrolment ratio 1990-96 (gross) F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Iraq | **37** | 55 | 25 | 71 | 45 | 92 | 78 | 81 | 71 | 88 | 80 | 72 | 51 | 32 |
| Ireland | **162** | – | – | – | – | 103 | 103 | 100 | 100 | – | – | 100 | 111 | 119 |
| Israel | **165** | 95 | 88 | 97 | 93 | 96 | 96 | – | – | – | – | 100 | 84 | 89 |
| Italy | **165** | 97 | 95 | 99 | 98 | 100 | 99 | 99 | 98 | – | – | 100 | 87 | 88 |
| Jamaica | **149** | 73 | 81 | 80 | 89 | 107 | 107 | 100 | 100 | – | – | 96 | 62 | 70 |
| Japan | **189** | 100 | 99 | – | – | 101 | 102 | 100 | 100 | – | – | 100 | 98 | 100 |
| Jordan | **93** | 82 | 54 | 91 | 80 | 94 | 95 | 89 | 89 | 91 | 91 | 98 | 52 | 54 |
| Kazakstan | **83** | – | – | 100 | 99 | 95 | 96 | – | – | 87 | 83 | – | 80 | 89 |
| Kenya | **40** | 71 | 43 | 86 | 69 | 85 | 85 | 92 | 89 | 86 | 85 | 68 | 26 | 22 |
| Kiribati | **62** | – | – | – | 92 | – | – | | – | – | – | 89 | – | – |
| Korea, Dem. People's Rep. | **104** | – | – | – | – | 108 | 101 | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Korea, Rep. of | **175** | 97 | 89 | 99 | 95 | 94 | 94 | 92 | 93 | – | – | 100 | 102 | 102 |
| Kuwait | **147** | 73 | 59 | 82 | 76 | 76 | 74 | 65 | 65 | – | – | 99 | 65 | 65 |
| Kyrgyzstan | **69** | – | – | 99 | 95 | 108 | 105 | 99 | 95 | 89 | 90 | 92 | 76 | 85 |
| Lao People's Dem. Rep. | **41** | 56 | 28 | 69 | 44 | 125 | 97 | 77 | 66 | 70 | 67 | 53 | 36 | 23 |
| Latvia | **126** | 100 | 98 | 100 | 99 | 99 | 93 | 92 | 87 | – | – | 96 | 82 | 85 |
| Lebanon | **94** | 83 | 63 | 91 | 77 | 113 | 108 | – | – | – | – | – | 78 | 85 |
| Lesotho | **33** | 58 | 83 | 70 | 92 | 92 | 102 | 58 | 68 | 71 | 79 | 80 | 23 | 34 |
| Liberia | **6** | 42 | 14 | 62 | 28 | 51 | 28 | – | – | 59 | 53 | – | 31 | 12 |
| Libya | **117** | 71 | 31 | 87 | 60 | 110 | 110 | 98 | 96 | – | – | – | 95 | 95 |
| Liechtenstein | **149** | – | – | 100 | 100 | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Lithuania | **120** | 98 | 95 | 100 | 99 | 99 | 96 | – | – | – | – | 98 | 85 | 88 |
| Luxembourg | **175** | – | – | – | – | 88 | 94 | 84 | 86 | – | – | – | 72 | 76 |
| Madagascar | **25** | 56 | 43 | 60 | 32 | 74 | 71 | 48 | 48 | 58 | 60 | 40 | 13 | 13 |
| Malawi | **7** | 64 | 27 | 72 | 41 | 142 | 128 | 100 | 100 | 83 | 83 | 34 | 21 | 12 |
| Malaysia | **153** | 80 | 60 | 89 | 79 | 90 | 92 | 91 | 92 | – | – | 99 | 58 | 66 |
| Maldives | **56** | 92 | 91 | 95 | 95 | 127 | 123 | – | – | – | – | 93 | 49 | 49 |
| Mali | **5** | 19 | 8 | 40 | 25 | 41 | 27 | 32 | 21 | 45 | 36 | 82 | 12 | 6 |
| Malta | **162** | 83 | 84 | 90 | 91 | 111 | 109 | 100 | 100 | – | – | 100 | 93 | 86 |
| Marshall Islands | **52** | – | – | – | 90 | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Mauritania | **16** | 41 | 18 | 49 | 27 | 88 | 79 | 64 | 55 | 55 | 53 | 64 | 21 | 11 |
| Mauritius | **120** | 81 | 67 | 86 | 78 | 107 | 106 | 98 | 98 | – | – | 99 | 63 | 66 |
| Mexico | **97** | 86 | 80 | 92 | 87 | 116 | 113 | | | | – | 84 | 61 | 61 |
| Micronesia, Fed. States of | **117** | – | – | – | 79 | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Moldova, Rep. of | **94** | 96 | 88 | 99 | 97 | 96 | 95 | – | – | – | – | 93 | 78 | 81 |
| Monaco | **175** | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | 98 | – | – |
| Mongolia | **28** | 82 | 63 | 89 | 77 | 86 | 91 | 80 | 84 | – | – | – | 48 | 65 |
| Morocco | **67** | 42 | 16 | 58 | 31 | 95 | 72 | 81 | 63 | 61 | 45 | 75 | 44 | 34 |
| Mozambique | **10** | 44 | 12 | 55 | 23 | 70 | 50 | 45 | 35 | 53 | 47 | 46 | 9 | 5 |
| Myanmar | **44** | 86 | 66 | 88 | 78 | 102 | 99 | – | – | 85 | 85 | – | 29 | 30 |
| Namibia | **62** | 71 | 61 | 80 | 77 | 130 | 132 | 86 | 93 | 74 | 79 | 79 | 56 | 66 |

| | Under-5 mortality rank | Adult literacy rate 1980 M | Adult literacy rate 1980 F | Adult literacy rate 1995 M | Adult literacy rate 1995 F | Primary school enrolment ratio 1990-1997 (gross) M | Primary school enrolment ratio 1990-1997 (gross) F | Primary school enrolment ratio 1990-1997 (net) M | Primary school enrolment ratio 1990-1997 (net) F | Primary school attendance % 1990-1998 (net) M | Primary school attendance % 1990-1998 (net) F | % of primary entrants reaching grade 5 1990-95 | Sec school enrolment ratio 1990-96 (gross) M | Sec school enrolment ratio 1990-96 (gross) F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Nauru | **104** | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Nepal | **51** | 38 | 7 | 54 | 19 | 128 | 91 | 80 | 41 | 80 | 60 | 52 | 49 | 25 |
| Netherlands | **175** | – | – | – | – | 108 | 106 | 100 | 99 | – | – | – | 141 | 133 |
| New Zealand | **165** | – | – | – | – | 103 | 103 | 100 | 100 | – | – | 96 | 117 | 123 |
| Nicaragua | **77** | 61 | 61 | 65 | 67 | 109 | 112 | 82 | 85 | 69 | 74 | 54 | 43 | 50 |
| Niger | **3** | 14 | 3 | 21 | 7 | 36 | 22 | 30 | 19 | 31 | 21 | 73 | 9 | 5 |
| Nigeria | **15** | 45 | 22 | 66 | 47 | 100 | 79 | – | – | 60 | 58 | 80 | 33 | 28 |
| Niue | **–** | – | – | – | 99 | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Norway | **189** | – | – | – | – | 99 | 99 | 99 | 99 | – | – | 100 | 120 | 113 |
| Oman | **140** | 52 | 16 | 75 | 51 | 80 | 75 | 69 | 67 | 91 | 89 | 96 | 68 | 65 |
| Pakistan | **33** | 41 | 14 | 54 | 24 | 101 | 45 | – | – | 71 | 62 | 48 | 33 | 17 |
| Palau | **97** | – | – | – | 97 | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Panama | **133** | 86 | 85 | 91 | 90 | 108 | 104 | 91 | 92 | – | – | 82 | 60 | 65 |
| Papua New Guinea | **45** | 70 | 45 | 81 | 63 | 87 | 74 | 79 | 67 | 32 | 31 | 59 | 17 | 11 |
| Paraguay | **100** | 89 | 82 | 93 | 90 | 113 | 110 | 91 | 91 | 93 | 93 | 71 | 42 | 45 |
| Peru | **73** | 88 | 71 | 93 | 83 | 125 | 121 | 91 | 90 | 87 | 87 | – | 72 | 64 |
| Philippines | **81** | 90 | 88 | 94 | 94 | 110 | 112 | 100 | 100 | 81 | 85 | 70 | 71 | 75 |
| Poland | **149** | 99 | 99 | 100 | 100 | 97 | 95 | 95 | 94 | – | – | 98 | 98 | 97 |
| Portugal | **156** | 87 | 77 | 93 | 87 | 131 | 125 | 100 | 100 | – | – | – | 102 | 111 |
| Qatar | **140** | 72 | 65 | 79 | 80 | 87 | 85 | 81 | 80 | – | – | 99 | 81 | 79 |
| Romania | **117** | 98 | 92 | 99 | 96 | 105 | 103 | 96 | 95 | – | – | 99 | 78 | 78 |
| Russian Federation | **115** | 99 | 93 | 100 | 99 | 108 | 107 | 93 | 93 | – | – | – | 84 | 91 |
| Rwanda | **21** | 51 | 29 | 69 | 52 | 83 | 81 | 76 | 76 | 61 | 61 | 60 | 12 | 9 |
| Saint Kitts and Nevis | **90** | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Saint Lucia | **130** | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | 95 | – | – |
| Saint Vincent/ Grenadines | **120** | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Samoa | **110** | – | – | – | 98 | 111 | 103 | 97 | 97 | – | – | 85 | 59 | 66 |
| San Marino | **165** | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | 100 | – | – |
| Sao Tome and Principe | **61** | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – |
| Saudi Arabia | **113** | 65 | 32 | 80 | 59 | 77 | 75 | 63 | 60 | – | – | 89 | 65 | 57 |
| Senegal | **38** | 31 | 12 | 43 | 23 | 76 | 62 | 64 | 53 | 48 | 42 | 85 | 20 | 12 |
| Seychelles | **140** | – | – | 83 | 86 | – | – | – | – | – | – | 100 | – | – |
| Sierra Leone | **1** | 30 | 9 | 45 | 18 | 59 | 41 | – | – | – | – | – | 22 | 13 |
| Singapore | **175** | 92 | 74 | 96 | 86 | 95 | 93 | 93 | 92 | – | – | 100 | 70 | 77 |
| Slovakia | **153** | – | – | – | – | 102 | 102 | – | – | – | – | 97 | 92 | 96 |
| Slovenia | **175** | 100 | 99 | 100 | 100 | 106 | 105 | 100 | 100 | – | – | 98 | 92 | 94 |
| Solomon Islands | **113** | – | – | – | 56 | 104 | 90 | – | – | – | – | 81 | 21 | 14 |
| Somalia | **8** | 8 | 1 | 36 | 14 | 15 | 8 | 11 | 6 | 21 | 13 | – | 9 | 5 |
| South Africa | **58** | 78 | 75 | 84 | 82 | 117 | 115 | 93 | 95 | – | 65 | 76 | 91 | |
| Spain | **165** | 97 | 92 | 98 | 96 | 106 | 105 | 100 | 100 | – | – | 98 | 114 | 128 |
| Sri Lanka | **137** | 91 | 79 | 94 | 87 | 110 | 108 | – | – | – | – | 83 | 71 | 78 |
| Sudan | **43** | 48 | 18 | 63 | 38 | 57 | 48 | – | – | 59 | 52 | 94 | 21 | 19 |

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| | Under-5 mortality rank | Adult literacy rate 1980 M | F | 1995 M | F | Primary school enrolment ratio 1990-1997 (gross) M | F | (net) M | F | Primary school attendance % 1990-1998 (net) M | F | % of primary entrants reaching grade 5 1990-95 | Sec school enrolment ratio 1990-96 (gross) M | F |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Suriname | **94** | 92 | 84 | 95 | 91 | 129 | 125 | 100 | 100 | – | – | 99 | 50 | 58 |
| Sweden | **189** | – | – | | – | 105 | 106 | 100 | 100 | – | – | 98 | 126 | 147 |
| Switzerland | **175** | – | – | – | – | 108 | 107 | 100 | 100 | – | – | 100 | 94 | 88 |
| Syria | **102** | 72 | 34 | 85 | 54 | 106 | 96 | 95 | 87 | 98 | 95 | 94 | 45 | 40 |
| Tajikistan | **62** | 97 | 92 | 99 | 98 | 95 | 92 | – | – | – | – | – | 81 | 72 |
| Tanzania | **32** | 65 | 34 | 80 | 59 | 67 | 66 | 47 | 49 | 61 | 68 | 83 | 6 | 5 |
| TFYR Macedonia | **110** | – | – | – | – | 90 | 87 | 86 | 84 | – | – | 99 | 58 | 58 |
| Thailand | **90** | 92 | 83 | 96 | 92 | 99 | 96 | – | – | – | – | 88 | 38 | 37 |
| Togo | **30** | 48 | 18 | 67 | 35 | 140 | 99 | 93 | 69 | 73 | 64 | 71 | 40 | 14 |
| Tonga | **120** | – | – | – | 99 | – | – | – | – | – | – | 92 | – | – |
| Trinidad and Tobago | **140** | 97 | 93 | 99 | 97 | 91 | 102 | 83 | 94 | – | – | 95 | 66 | 79 |
| Tunisia | **102** | 61 | 32 | 76 | 53 | 117 | 111 | 97 | 95 | – | – | 91 | 67 | 65 |
| Turkey | **85** | 81 | 50 | 92 | 72 | 107 | 102 | 98 | 94 | 74 | 71 | 89 | 67 | 45 |
| Turkmenistan | **66** | – | – | 99 | 97 | – | – | – | – | 81 | 80 | – | – | – |
| Tuvalu | **71** | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | – | 96 | – | – |
| Uganda | **35** | 60 | 31 | 74 | 50 | 79 | 67 | 58 | 51 | 65 | 63 | 55 | 15 | 9 |
| Ukraine | **126** | – | – | 98 | 99 | 87 | 86 | – | – | – | – | – | 88 | 94 |
| United Arab Emirates | **153** | 72 | 64 | 79 | 80 | 91 | 87 | 79 | 78 | – | – | 83 | 77 | 82 |
| United Kingdom | **165** | – | – | – | – | 115 | 116 | 100 | 100 | – | – | – | 123 | 144 |
| United States | **160** | 99 | 99 | – | – | 102 | 101 | 94 | 95 | – | – | 99 | 98 | 97 |
| Uruguay | **137** | 94 | 95 | 97 | 98 | 113 | 112 | 95 | 96 | – | – | 98 | 77 | 92 |
| Uzbekistan | **70** | – | – | 100 | 100 | 78 | 76 | – | – | 83 | 83 | – | 99 | 87 |
| Vanuatu | **76** | – | – | – | 60 | 105 | 107 | 76 | 72 | – | – | 61 | 23 | 18 |
| Venezuela | **115** | 86 | 82 | 92 | 90 | 90 | 93 | 83 | 85 | – | – | 89 | 33 | 46 |
| Viet Nam | **85** | 92 | 76 | 95 | 88 | 106 | 100 | – | – | – | – | – | 44 | 41 |
| Yemen | **38** | 39 | 6 | 62 | 18 | 100 | 40 | – | – | 75 | 40 | – | 53 | 14 |
| Yugoslavia | **130** | – | – | 99 | 97 | 71 | 72 | 69 | 70 | – | – | 100 | 62 | 66 |
| Zambia | **12** | 73 | 50 | 86 | 71 | 92 | 86 | 76 | 75 | 74 | 74 | 84 | 34 | 21 |
| Zimbabwe | **55** | 83 | 68 | 90 | 80 | 115 | 111 | – | – | 91 | 90 | 79 | 52 | 44 |
| **Regional summaries** | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| Sub-Saharan Africa | | 50 | 29 | 65 | 47 | 82 | 67 | 59 | 51 | 61 | 57 | 67 | 27 | 22 |
| Middle East and North Africa | | 57 | 28 | 71 | 47 | 95 | 82 | 85 | 77 | 85 | 75 | 90 | 64 | 54 |
| South Asia | | 52 | 24 | 62 | 33 | 105 | 81 | 65 | 50 | 74 | 62 | 56 | 52 | 33 |
| East Asia and Pacific | | 80 | 56 | 90 | 75 | 117 | 115 | 99 | 99 | 93 | 93 | 91 | 67 | 61 |
| Latin America and Caribbean | | 82 | 78 | 88 | 85 | 107 | 104 | 87 | 87 | 89 | 90 | 76 | 48 | 52 |
| CEE/CIS and Baltic States | | – | – | 99 | 96 | 99 | 98 | 93 | 92 | – | – | – | 82 | 82 |
| Industrialized countries | | 99 | 97 | – | – | 104 | 103 | 97 | 97 | – | – | 99 | 105 | 107 |
| Developing countries | | 68 | 46 | 79 | 61 | 105 | 92 | 86 | 81 | 81 | 75 | 74 | 55 | 46 |
| Least developed countries | | 47 | 24 | 59 | 38 | 76 | 59 | 56 | 45 | 63 | 58 | 58 | 24 | 14 |
| **World** | | **75** | **58** | **81** | **65** | **104** | **94** | **88** | **84** | **81** | **75** | **77** | **61** | **54** |

H3

# Annex 2

## Global and regional indicators of development progress for the international development targets

| | | World total | Developing country total[b] | East Asia & Pacific | Eastern Europe and Central Asia | Latin America and Caribbean | Middle East & North Africa | South Asia | Sub Saharan Africa |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Population** (millions) | 1980 | 4,430 | 3,641 | 1,398 | 426 | 360 | 174 | 903 | 380 |
| | 1990 | 5,255 | 4,414 | 1,641 | 466 | 439 | 238 | 1,122 | 508 |
| | 1998 | 5,897 | 5,011 | 1,817 | 475 | 502 | 286 | 1,305 | 627 |
| **Reducing Extreme Poverty** | | | | | | | | | |
| **Population covered by at least one survey for poverty data** (%) | 1985–98[b] | .. | 88.1 | 90.8 | 81.7 | 88.0 | 52.5 | 97.9 | 72.9 |
| **Population living on less than $1 a day** [c] (millions) | 1987 | .. | 1,183.2 | 417.5 | 1.1 | 63.7 | 9.3 | 474.4 | 217.2 |
| | 1990 | .. | 1,276.4 | 452.4 | 7.1 | 73.8 | 5.7 | 495.1 | 242.3 |
| | 1993 | .. | 1,304.3 | 431.9 | 18.3 | 70.8 | 5.0 | 505.1 | 273.3 |
| | 1996 | .. | 1,190.6 | 265.1 | 23.8 | 76.0 | 5.0 | 531.7 | 289.0 |
| | estimates for 1998 | .. | 1,198.9 | 278.3 | 24.0 | 78.2 | 5.5 | 522.0 | 290.9 |
| **Population living on less than $1 a day** [c] (%) | 1987 | .. | 28.3 | 26.6 | 0.2 | 15.3 | 4.3 | 44.9 | 46.6 |
| | 1990 | .. | 29.0 | 27.6 | 1.6 | 16.8 | 2.4 | 44.0 | 47.7 |
| | 1993 | .. | 28.1 | 25.2 | 4.0 | 15.3 | 1.9 | 42.4 | 49.7 |
| | 1996 | .. | 24.5 | 14.9 | 5.1 | 15.6 | 1.8 | 42.3 | 48.5 |
| | estimates for 1998 | .. | 24.0 | 15.3 | 5.1 | 15.6 | 1.9 | 40.0 | 46.3 |
| **Poverty Gap** [c,d] (%) | 1987 | .. | 8.6 | 6.8 | 0.1 | 5.2 | 1.0 | 13.0 | 20.0 |
| | 1990 | .. | 9.0 | 7.6 | 1.0 | 6.0 | 0.5 | 12.0 | 20.4 |
| | 1993 | .. | 8.9 | 7.5 | 1.3 | 5.8 | 0.4 | 11.2 | 21.7 |
| | 1996 | .. | 7.5 | 4.0 | 1.5 | 5.3 | 0.4 | 10.6 | 21.5 |
| | estimates for 1998 | .. | 7.2 | 4.2 | 1.6 | 5.3 | 0.2 | 9.5 | 20.1 |
| **National income/ consumption by poorest 20%** (share that accrues to the bottom 20% of the population) | 1980s | .. | .. | 6.3 | 9.8 | 3.7 | 6.6 | 7.9 | 5.7 |
| | 1990s | .. | .. | 6.9 | 8.8 | 4.5 | 6.9 | 8.8 | 5.2 |
| **Prevalence of child malnutrition, weight for age** (% of children under 5 years old) (% of children under 5 years old) | 1992–98[b] | 30 | 31 | 22 | 8 | 8 | 15 | 51 | 33 |

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| | | | World total | Developing country total[a] | East Asia & Pacific | Eastern Europe and Central Asia | Latin America and Caribbean | Middle East & North Africa | South Asia | Sub Saharan Africa |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Universal Primary Education** | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Net primary school enrolment** (school age in school as % of all school age children) | Female | 1980 | 77 | 72 | 82 | 91 | 85 | 64 | 52 | 49 |
| | | 1990 | 86 | 83 | 96 | 95 | 88 | 82 | 65 | 52 |
| | | 1997 | 88 | 86 | 99 | 99 | 93 | 84 | 70 | 54 |
| | Male | 1980 | 86 | 83 | 90 | 93 | 86 | 84 | 75 | 59 |
| | | 1990 | 91 | 89 | 99 | 95 | 88 | 92 | 82 | 59 |
| | | 1997 | 92 | 91 | 99 | 100 | 95 | 91 | 83 | 66 |
| | Total | 1980 | 81 | 78 | 86 | 92 | 85 | 74 | 64 | 54 |
| | | 1990 | 88 | 86 | 97 | 95 | 88 | 87 | 74 | 56 |
| | | 1997 | 90 | 88 | 99 | 100 | 94 | 87 | 77 | .. |
| **Persistence to grade 5** (% of children enrolled at Grade 1 who reach Grade 5) | | 1990–1995[b] | 77 | 74 | 91 | .. | 76 | 90 | 56 | 67 |
| **Youth literacy rate** (% of people 15–24) | Female | 1980 | 70 | 69 | 85 | 96 | 89 | 47 | 38 | 44 |
| | | 1990 | 77 | 77 | 92 | 97 | 92 | 63 | 50 | 60 |
| | | 1998 | 81 | 81 | 95 | 98 | 94 | 75 | 58 | 72 |
| | Male | 1980 | 83 | 83 | 95 | 99 | 90 | 73 | 64 | 66 |
| | | 1990 | 87 | 87 | 97 | 99 | 92 | 82 | 71 | 75 |
| | | 1998 | 89 | 89 | 98 | 99 | 93 | 87 | 76 | 81 |
| | Total | 1980 | 77 | 76 | 90 | 97 | 89 | 60 | 52 | 55 |
| | | 1990 | 82 | 82 | 94 | 98 | 92 | 73 | 61 | 68 |
| | | 1998 | 85 | 85 | 97 | 99 | 94 | 81 | 67 | 76 |
| **Adult literacy rate** (% of people 15+) | Female | 1980 | 54 | 52 | 57 | 92 | 77 | 28 | 25 | 28 |
| | | 1990 | 62 | 61 | 71 | 94 | 83 | 41 | 34 | 40 |
| | | 1998 | 68 | 67 | 78 | 95 | 87 | 52 | 41 | 51 |
| | Male | 1980 | 72 | 71 | 80 | 97 | 82 | 56 | 52 | 49 |
| | | 1990 | 78 | 78 | 87 | 98 | 86 | 67 | 59 | 60 |
| | | 1998 | 82 | 82 | 91 | 98 | 89 | 74 | 65 | 68 |
| | Total | 1980 | 63 | 62 | 69 | 94 | 80 | 42 | 39 | 38 |
| | | 1990 | 70 | 69 | 79 | 96 | 85 | 54 | 47 | 50 |
| | | 1998 | 75 | 74 | 84 | 96 | 88 | 63 | 53 | 59 |
| **Gender Equality** | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Gender equality in school** (female gross enrolment ratio as a % of male gross enrolment ratio) | Primary | 1980 | 87 | 84 | 87 | 99 | 97 | 74 | 67 | 76 |
| | | 1990 | 90 | 88 | 94 | 99 | 100[c] | 86 | 75 | 82 |
| | | 1994–1998[b] | 94 | 92 | 100 | 98 | 98[c] | 86 | 82 | 84 |
| | Primary & Secondary | 1990 | .. | .. | 88 | 93 | 98 | 82 | 75 | 82 |
| | | 1996 | .. | .. | 91 | 85 | 95 | 86 | 94 | 87 |
| **Gender equality in adult literacy** (female literacy rate as a % of male literacy rate) | | 1980 | 75 | 73 | 71 | 95 | 94 | 50 | 48 | 57 |
| | | 1990 | 79 | 78 | 82 | 96 | 97 | 61 | 58 | 67 |
| | | 1998 | 83 | 82 | 86 | 97 | 98 | 70 | 63 | 75 |

| | | | World total | Developing country total[a] | East Asia & Pacific | Eastern Europe and Central Asia | Latin America and Caribbean | Middle East & North Africa | South Asia | Sub Saharan Africa |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Infant and Child Mortality** | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Infant mortality rate** | | 1980 | 80 | 87 | 55 | 41 | 61 | 95 | 119 | 115 |
| (per 1,000 live births) | | 1990 | 60 | 65 | 40 | 28 | 41 | 60 | 87 | 101 |
| | | 1998 | 54 | 59 | 35 | 22 | 31 | 45 | 75 | 92 |
| **Under-5 mortality rate** | | 1980 | 123 | 135 | 82 | .. | 78 | 136 | 180 | 188 |
| (per 1,000 live births) | | 1990 | 87 | 91 | 55 | 34 | 49 | 71 | 121 | 155 |
| | | 1998 | 75 | 79 | 43 | 26 | 38 | 55 | 89 | 151 |
| **Maternal Mortality** | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Maternal mortality ratio** | | 1990 | 430 | 480 | 210 | 95 | 190 | 320 | 610 | 980 |
| (per 100,000 live births) | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Births attended by health staff** | | 1990 | .. | 49 | 58 | .. | .. | 58 | 39 | .. |
| (% of total) | | 1996–1998[a] | 52 | 47 | .. | 92 | 78 | 62 | 29 | 38 |
| **Reproductive Health** | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Contraceptive prevalence** | | 1997–1998[a] | 49 | 48 | 52 | 67 | 59 | 55 | 49 | 21 |
| (% of women 15–49) | | | | | | | | | | |
| **HIV prevalence** [a] | | 1999 | 1.1 | .. | 0.07 | 0.14 | .. | 0.13 | .. | 8.0 |
| (Percentage of adults (15–49 years) living with HIV/AIDS in 1999) | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Environment** | | | | | | | | | | |
| **National strategies for sustainable development** (countries with effective processes for sustainable development) | | 1998 | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. | .. |
| **Safe water** (% of population with access) | Urban | 1990–98[a] | 90 | 89 | 95 | .. | 88 | 97 | 86 | 77 |
| | Rural | 1990–98[a] | 62 | 62 | 58 | .. | 42 | 72 | 78 | 39 |
| | Total | 1990–98[a] | 72 | 72 | 69 | .. | 78 | 85 | 80 | 50 |
| **Forest Area** (% of | | 1990 | 30 | 29 | 25 | 36 | 49 | 4 | 14 | 23 |
| National Surface Area) | | 1995[b] | 25 | 26 | 24 | 36 | 45 | 1 | 16 | 17 |
| **Biodiversity: land area** | | 1994[b] | 6.7 | 5.1 | 6.2 | 3.6 | 6.5 | 3.0 | 4.4 | 5.8 |
| **protected** (% of total land area) | | 1996[b] | 6.6 | 5.3 | 6.9 | 3.2 | 7.3 | 2.2 | 4.5 | 6.2 |
| **Energy efficiency: GDP per** | | 1990 | .. | .. | .. | 0.7 | .. | 1.5 | .. | .. |
| **unit of energy use** | | 1997 | .. | .. | .. | 0.8 | .. | 1.3 | .. | .. |
| **Industrial Carbon Dioxide** | | 1980 | 3.4 | 1.5 | 1.4 | .. | 2.4 | 3.0 | 0.4 | 0.9 |
| **emissions** (tonnes per | | 1990 | 3.3 | 1.7 | 2.0 | .. | 2.2 | 3.3 | 0.7 | 0.9 |
| capita) | | 1996 | 4.0 | 2.5 | 2.7 | 7.4 | 2.5 | 3.9 | 0.9 | 0.8 |

| | | | World total | Developing country total[a] | East Asia & Pacific | Eastern Europe and Central Asia | Latin America and Caribbean | Middle East & North Africa | South Asia | Sub Saharan Africa |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **General Indicators** | | | | | | | | | | |
| **Life Expectancy at Birth** | Female | 1980 | 64 | 60 | 67[e] | 72 | 68 | 60 | 54 | 49 |
| (in years) | | 1990 | 68 | 65 | 69 | 74 | 71 | 66 | 59 | 52 |
| | | 1998 | 69 | 67 | 71 | 74 | 73 | 69 | 63 | 52 |
| | Male | 1980 | 59 | 56 | 64[e] | 63 | 62 | 57 | 54 | 46 |
| | | 1990 | 63 | 62 | 66 | 65 | 65 | 63 | 59 | 49 |
| | | 1998 | 65 | 63 | 67 | 65 | 67 | 66 | 62 | 49 |
| | Total | 1980 | 61 | 58 | 66[e] | 68 | 65 | 59 | 54 | 48 |
| | | 1990 | 65 | 63 | 67 | 69 | 68 | 65 | 59 | 50 |
| | | 1998 | 67 | 65 | 69 | 69 | 70 | 68 | 62 | 50 |
| **Fertility Rate** | | 1980 | 3.7 | 4.1 | 3.0 | 2.5 | 4.1 | 6.2 | 5.3 | 6.6 |
| (births per woman) | | 1990 | 3.1 | 3.4 | 2.4 | 2.3 | 3.1 | 4.8 | 4.1 | 6.0 |
| | | 1998 | 2.7 | 2.9 | 2.1 | 1.6 | 2.7 | 3.5 | 3.4 | 5.4 |
| **GNP per capita** | | 1980 | 2,530 | 790 | 330 | .. | 2,110 | 2,040 | 270 | 650 |
| (Atlas method (current US$)) | | 1990 | 4,030 | 940 | 570 | .. | 2,250 | 1,720 | 380 | 550 |
| | | 1998 | 4,890 | 1,250 | 990 | 2,200 | 3,860 | 2,030 | 430 | 510 |

[a] Combined figure for low and middle income countries used as a proxy for developing countries with the exception of the indicators for persistence to Grade 5, maternal mortality ratio and safe water where a true developing countries figure is used.
[b] Data refer to the most recent year available within the specified period.
[c] At 1993 purchasing power parities (PPPs) adjusted to current price terms.
[d] The poverty gap is the mean shortfall below the poverty line (counting the non-poor as having zero shortfall), expressed as a percentage of the poverty line. The measure reflects the depth of poverty as well as its incidence.
[e] Data are for nearest available year.
[f] Figures are based on net enrolment ratios.
[g] The indicator actually relates to HIV prevalence in 15 to 24 year old pregnant women. However, until satisfactory data coverage is achieved on this indicator, the prevalence of HIV infection in all adults will be used.
[h] Data may refer to earlier years
.. = Not available

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